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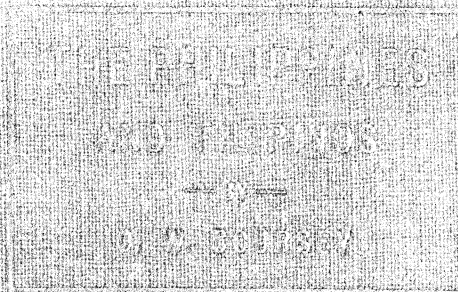
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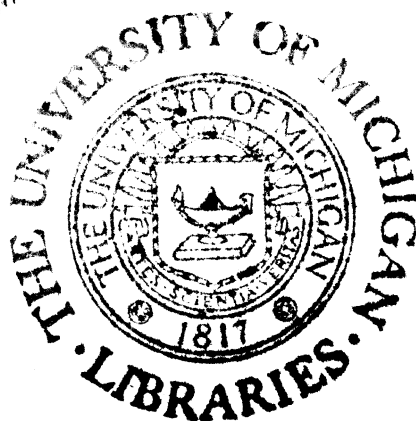
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—THE—
PHILIPPINES
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A Treatise on the History, the Civics, and
the Mathematical, Physical and Po-
litical Geography of the Philip-
pine Archipelago

—By—

O. W. COURSEY (U. S. Vols.)

AUTHOR OF

“History and Geography of the Philippine Islands”
“The Woman With a Stone Heart”
“Who’s Who in South Dakota”
“Biography of Gen. Beadle”
“School Law Digest”



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TO MY MOTHER

P R E F A C E

My former book, entitled "History and Geography of the Philippine Islands," having met with such favor at the hands of the public that a second edition of it became necessary, I felt encouraged to write this one.

The other book was written in 1903; this one, in 1914. This interval of eleven years has witnessed such an unprecedented, and, I might add, truthfully, such an unexpected, era of industrial and commercial development in the Philippines, under the sovereignty of the United States, that we now see them in a new perspective.

Although a great deal of the information contained in this book was collected from among the archives of Manila, by myself, while I was on soldier duty in the Islands, yet I wish publicly to announce my obligations to the Department of Insular Affairs, Washington, D. C., for very valuable assistance rendered in furnishing to me a large number of public and private, civil and military, documents with which to verify my data and to complete my manuscript. Thoughtless, in-

deed, should I consider myself to be, if I failed herein also to thank Admiral George Dewey for furnishing to me much valuable information—particularly with reference to the Battle of Manila Bay.

The reader will note I have very carefully classified my subject matter, so that a person might hastily review one phase of the Islands, without pausing to go over the whole text. If those who shall read this book get out of it only a small portion of the interest and benefit that I did in writing it, still our pleasure will have become mutual.

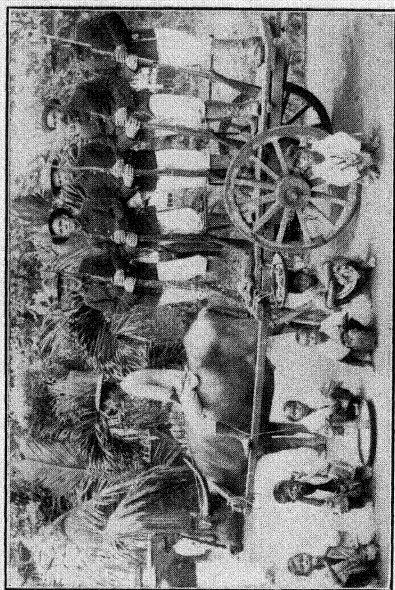
—THE AUTHOR.

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Scene near San Miguel Street in Manila, taken December 25, 1898, showing caribou and a dray cart; also the natives in their natural costumes and positions.

CHAPTER I.
HISTORY,

DISCOVERY.

The Philippine Islands were discovered by Magellan (Hernando de Magellanes), a Portuguese navigator, sailing under the flag of Spain, March 31, 1521,—a time prior to which no authentic information relative to their history has been recorded.

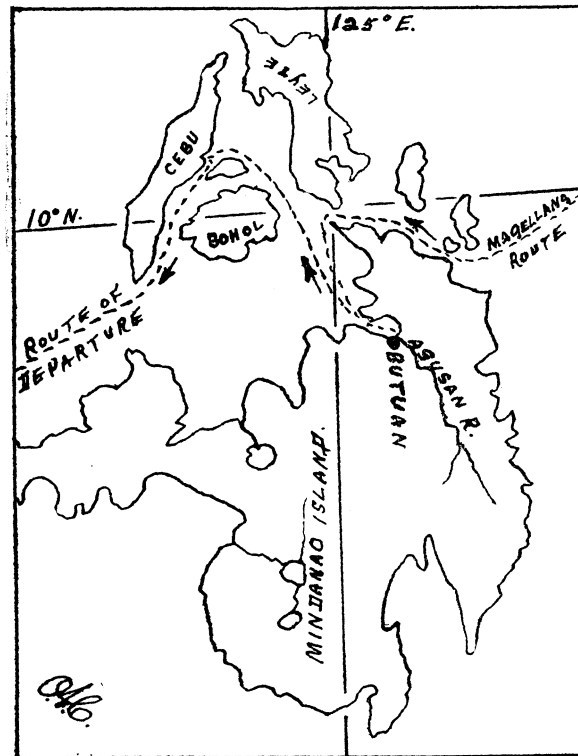
Magellan set sail from San Lucas, Spain, August 19, 1519, with five vessels; namely, the Victoria, the San Antonio, the Santiago, the Concepcion, and the Trinidad. The object of his voyage was to find a western route to Moluccas, and to prove what Columbus had started out to do: that the earth is round. He reached the mouth of the Rio de la Platte river in South America early in November of the following year, and sailed southward along the Patagonian coast, looking for a western outlet, until he finally discovered and passed through the straits which bear his name, at the southern extrem-

ity of the continent, November 27, 1520.

After leaving the straits, he continued his western voyage, bearing well to the north. On March 19, 1521, he discovered a small group of islands which he named *Ladrones** (a Spanish word meaning thief) on account of the thievish disposition of the natives who robbed him and his crew of many of their belongings.

Again sailing westward he discovered Mindanao, the second largest island of the Philippine group, March 31, 1521. He passed around the northern point of the island and anchored his vessels in Butuan Bay, near the mouth of the Agusan River. It was just time for celebrating the feast of Pentecost, so Magellan ordered his men to go ashore and hold mass—the first religious gathering ever known to have assembled in the Philippine Islands. This mass was held in the little town of Butuan, now a large city. (Trace Magellan's course on the map).

* They were afterwards called the "Lazarus Islands," but were changed in 1668, by the Jesuit Missionaries, to "Marianne Islands" in honor of Maria Anna of Austria, widow of King Philip IV of Spain, but they have long since been restored to their original name, "Ladrone Islands,"



Map showing route of Magellan's fleet through the Islands.

Their stay at this place was brief, and they soon set sail westward, landing at Cebu on a little island of the same name. Near the island of Cebu, and separated from it by a very narrow strait, is a still smaller island named Mactan. Magellan found the Ceubans and Mactans engaged in a petty war. Being of that adventurous disposition which makes the dangers of war a joy, and possessed of that treachery which deludes, temporarily, even the savage, he promised the hostile Cebuans that he would lead them to victory if they would embrace the Catholic religion. This they pretended to do. He bap-tized the king and eight hundred of his followers, placed himself at the head of the army, crossed the narrow strait, and landed safely on the Mactan side.

Upon the approach of Magellan and his powerful army, the Mactans conducted a sham retreat, leading him into a dismal swamp where they threw heavy re-inforcements on his flanks and sent a powerful army to cut off his retreat. (Evidently the Mactans had been schooled in the art of war for generations past.) At last Magellan, standing up to his shoulders in the mud and quicksand, received in his right eye an arrow

which caused his death, April 21, 1521. The few Cebuans left uninjured fled panic-stricken. Some of Magellan's crew were with him. When they returned to Cebu with a glorious account of their thrilling adventure, the Cebuans planned a festival for them. Those of his men who had been left to watch the ships, also came ashore. In the midst of the feast, when the Spaniards least expected an attack, they were assailed from all sides by the wily Cebuans who had secretly planned their extermination. Only a comparatively few of the Spaniards reached the water's edge and finally escaped to their anchored vessels in safety.

Juan Carballo then assumed command and directed the eventful expedition to Molucca. After a brief stop there, they started on toward home by way of the Cape of Good Hope. A tremendous storm was encountered in the Indian Ocean, which destroyed four of the vessels, leaving only the *Victoria*, commanded by Sebastian de El Cano. He sailed on toward home and arrived in Spain, September 6, 1522.

Thus to El Cano, and not to Magellan, belongs the glory of first having circumnavigated the globe; yet the latter, for plan-

ning and conducting the voyage through so many thousand miles of unknown waters, justly receives the credit.

A beautiful monument has been erected in honor of Magellan on the spot where he fell; also another one on the southern bank of the Pasig River, in the city of Manila. In the little town of Cavite, seven miles south of Manila, is still another one erected in honor of El Cano, who, when he reached Spain, was given a coat of arms by the king, containing the inscription, "Primus Circumdedit Me" (First to circumnavigate the globe).

NAMING THE ISLANDS.

When Magellan found that he had discovered a new group of islands, he named them "Archipelago de San Lorenzo" (St. Lawrence). Villalobos conducted an expedition to the islands in 1542, landed the following year, and changed the name to "Philippines" in honor of King Philip the Second, of Spain, formerly Prince of the Austrias. This title applies to the islands—the word "Filipinos" having direct reference to the natives. A few prominent Americans have suggested that the name be changed to

the "McKinley Islands," in honor of our martyred president to whose wisdom we are now indebted for the possession of them, but this will undoubtedly never be done.

SPANISH GOVERNORS.

At the time of Magellan's departure from Spain, in 1519, the agreement between Charles I and himself, among many other inspiring concession to the latter, contained a stipulation that Magellan was to be made "Governor" over all countries he might discover; therefore he became the first governor of the Philippine Islands—in name only, however.

King Philip II ascended to the throne of Spain in 1556. He was anxious to make a permanent enlargement of his realm, so he manned a large fleet, commanded by Miguel Lopez de Legaspi and started it for the Philippine Islands. It left Spain, November 21, 1564, and reached the archipelago, February 13, 1565, after losing over half of its vessels.

Legaspi had been instructed by the king to proclaim himself governor immediately upon his arrival,—a command which he obeyed. He landed at Cebu where he found the natives hostile in the extreme. Legaspi,

after sailing north from Cebu and founding the city of Manila in 1571, died in 1572.

The enterprising Gomez Dasmarinas became governor in 1590. He built the large stone wall around Manila; constructed forts, cathedrals, orphans' homes and asylums; established commerce, and instituted a reign of peace and industry.

In 1593, the governor of Siam appealed to him for aid in subduing a petty insurrection. Dasmarinas at once prepared a fleet of six ships manned by one thousand Spanish soldiers, one thousand lancers, four hundred natives, and four hundred Chinos, and set sail for Moluccas. Scarcely had he passed Corregidor Island at the outlet of Manila Bay and entered the Pacific Ocean, when his fleet encountered a raging typhoon which so disabled it that he was compelled to put to shore on the coast of Batangas Province in the western part of Luzon, about seventy-five miles south of Manila.

Dasmarinas had secretly entrusted the Chinese whom he had with him to put on board the strong boxes containing twelve thousand Mexican pesos (dollars) with which to defray expenses of the voyage. His confidence was betrayed; and no sooner had

the vessel again put to sea, than these trusted Chinamen mutinied, killed Dasmarinas, all of his Spanish soldiers, and most of the Filipinos on board, for the purpose of securing the hidden coin. After their dastardly deed was accomplished, they feared to return to Manila, so they permitted their boats to drift to the shore of Cochin-China where they were robbed by the natives of their newly-acquired wealth, and nearly all of them were killed,—a fitting return for their treachery in obtaining the treasure from Dasmarinas.

His son, Luis, upon learning of his father's death, took command in 1593, but he was succeeded by Antonio de Morga in 1595. The latter was followed by Don Francisco Tello de Guzman in 1596. He organized, disciplined and equipped a large army; sent expeditions against the rebellious natives of the southern islands, and even defeated the Dutch in an attack on Manila.

Tello de Guzman was succeeded by Pedro Bravo de Acunia in 1602. The next year the Chinese entered Manila Bay under the pretext of viewing the scenery of Manila and Cavite. Their real errand proved to be a secret plot for the extermination of the en-

tire Spanish population of Manila, about eight hundred persons, and the establishment of Chinese authority over the islands. The attempt proved disastrous, and twenty-three thousand of the treacherous Chinese paid the death penalty for the hazardous undertaking.

Don Juan de Silva became governor in 1609. At that time Spain and the Netherlands were undergoing a struggle for supremacy in the Orient. The attacks made on the Dutch settlements in Java and the neighboring islands by the Spanish garrisons in the Philippines, and the corresponding bombardment of Filipino towns, made by Dutch fleets, were of common occurrence.

Finally, the Dutch again blockaded Manila; but being over-ambitious and lacking in necessary precaution, they ventured too close to the heavy guns on the walls of the city and lost three of their five ships which took part in the engagement.

The Dutch then withdrew to one of the southern islands of the group. Governor Silva, upon receipt of this intelligence, re-organized his army, re-fitted his fleet, and set sail for the place of the attack which ended in triumph,—the Dutch retreating to their old

possessions in Java. Here they were again attacked by Governor Silva, and suffered a merciless defeat at Playa Honda, Zambeles, April 14, 1617.

Don Sebastian Hurtado de Corcuera took the reins of the government in 1635 and instituted the tobacco monopoly, but he became involved in trouble with the church and was deposed by ecclesiastical authority in 1664. During his term occurred the second Chinese revolt which ended in the slaughter of over forty thousand Chinamen.

Corcuera organized and disciplined a large army of Filipinos, consisting of both infantry and cavalry, officered by Spaniards, —the first successful attempt of this kind in the history of the race.

The reign of Diego Fajardo, from 1664 to 1653, was marked by many attacks on the Dutch colonies in Java, and by the great earthquake of 1645, re-opened in an advanced chapter.

In 1662, during the reign of Sabiniano de Lara, Kue Sing, a Chinese buccanneer, appeared with a powerful fleet before Manila and demanded the surrender of the city. His large army had just been successful in their subjugation of Formosa, and he now

decided to conquer the entire Orient. Fortunately, his sudden death put an end to the undertaking and saved Manila from possible Chinese invasion.

The king of Spain appointed a new governor, General Don Juan de Vargas Hurtado, who reached the islands September 8, 1678, and he instituted a reign of peace and prosperity.

In 1690, Cruzaty Gongora, a great Spanish financier, was appointed governor, and he, by tact in good government, succeeded in placing the islands upon a stable financial basis.

Only those governors in whose administrations occurred the most important events, have been herein given. For the sake of reference a full list of Spanish governors will be found in appendix "A" in the back part of this book.

INTERNICINE STRIFES

When Magellan reached the islands, in 1521, he found the natives engaged in an internicine war. This belligerent spirit has characterized them during all of their known history. At the conclusion of the Treaty of Peace between England and Spain in 1763,

and the restoration of Spanish sovereignty over the archipelago, the entire Filipino populace rebelled. Spain, unable to contrroll them, remained quiet, and in an underhanded way tried to subdue them by pitting one tribe against the other, until the slaughter became so general that whole provinces melted away. In one province, Ilocus, 275,000 perished at the hands of these assassins. Insurrections were of common occurrence. Those of the Chinese in 1603, already described, were followed by a long chain of revolts, trivial in purpose but bloody in results, extending down to the present time.

EARTHQUAKES.

The islands, being of volcanic origin, are subject to violent earthquake disturbances. In 1641, tremendous eruptions took place in the island of Minando, the entire Sulu archipelago, and in the north central part of Luzon. On the latter island, the deep rumblings caused by the gas escaping from one chamber to another in the bowels of the earth, were followed by eruptions so violent that they could be heard in Cochinchina.

At eight o'clock, on the evening of St.

Andrew's Day, 1645, while nearly the entire population of Manila was congregated in the churches of the city, celebrating their former victory over the Chinese invader, Li-Ma-Hang, Manila rose and fell like a great tidal wave. A large church and the convent of San Augustin were the only buildings left standing in the city after the disturbance of two days' duration had subsided. Nearly one thousand persons were entomed by the falling buildings.

WAR WITH ENGLAND.

In 1762, England and Spain were engaged in war. England used tactics similar to those adopted by the United States in the Spanish-American war, and sent a fleet to destroy Spain's power in the Orient. This fleet was composed of nine frigates, manned by two thousand three hundred troops from England's army in India, five hundred fifty sailors, and two hundred seventy marines; and it was commanded by Sir William Draper. He entered Manila Bay, September 23, 1762, and demanded the capitulation of the city. This being emphatically refused, troops were landed under cover of the fire from the frigates; breastworks were hur-

ridely constructed, and a general bombardment by land and sea was begun. The land batteries were the more effective; and on October 6, 1762, a large breach having been torn through the south wall, the English army moved forward to the assault. They were joined by the Chinese prisoners whom they had liberated from the jail, and by many Spanish traitors. The assault was overwhelming. The city was entered and it was surrendered forthwith to the invading army

The governor, Simon de Anda, escaped, and going into the province of Bulacan, north of Manila, he raised a powerful army, returned and began the siege of the city which he would have re-captured had it not been for the Treaty of Peace which was concluded in 1763.

By the terms of this treaty, England ceded the islands back to Spain, and Spain, in turn, agreed to pay England a war indemnity of \$4,000,000; however only a small portion of it was ever paid. Spain then retained unbroken possession of the Philippines till the close of her war with the United States, February 6, 1899.

INSURECTION OF 1896 .

Many just reasons exist for the Filipino uprising in 1896, and their attempted abolition of Spanish rule in the islands. Among these reasons were oppression, forcible collection of unjust taxes for the support of the church, the income tax, and the demand for forty days hard labor for the government by each male citizen each year.

The wakening of the Filipinos to a deep sense of the injustice being practiced upon them, was largely due to the introduction of secret societies into the islands, and to the influence of higher education obtained by those of means, in the schools of Hong Kong and other Old-World cities. The society of Odd Fellows spread to the islands in 1872, and it was largely responsible for the petty insurrection of the following year. Masonry was introduced in 1877. It spread rapidly, and today a large number of the natives belong to this order.

Their grievances grew more intense each year, and they needed only an opportune time to kindle the smoldering embers of discontent into a mighty conflagration of blood-shed.

At this time all of the available troops that Spain could spare at home, had been sent to Cuba to crush the life out of an insurrection that had been instituted by the Cubans for their independence from Spanish domination. The Filipinos, under the leadership of Don Emilio Aguinaldo and a few of his learned associates, took advantage of Spain's embarrassing position and secretly planned the murder of the Spanish Governor, the massacre of every Spanish garrison in the archipelago, and the subsequent independence of the islands from the yoke of Spanish tyranny.

A Filipino woman, wife of one of the chief conspirators, growing uneasy over the responsibility of her weighty secret and fearful of the results, betrayed her husband's confidence, and, on the first day of August, 1896, she revealed the entire scheme to the Spanish authorities. They took pronounced steps at once to unearth the conspiracy in full, arrested hundreds of Filipinos and Chinese, and inflicted death upon them in the most atrocious manners known to the supposedly civilized world. The climax of inhumanity and barbarism was at least reached when they suffocated several hundred

prisoners who had fallen into their hands, in the awful dungeon of San Sebastian. To this the Filipinos retaliated each morning, by taking twenty-five of the Spanish prisoners whom they had captured, and putting them into a deep pit a few miles west of Cavite, where they practiced marksmanship upon them till they were all dead.

Spanish cruelty did not dishearten the Filipinos nor allay their determination to carry out their secret plans. On August 20, 1896, while the Spanish regiment to which Aguinaldo had been attached as a petty officer, was on parade, he and his soldier-accomplices in the conspiracy, suddenly opened fire and shot all the Spanish officers in the regiment. They immediately escaped for their own safety into the bamboo jungles in the interior of Luzon, where Aguinaldo gathered about him a large army of Tagalos and prepared for a final conflict.

In order to keep up the courage of his troops, he allowed them to pillage the homes of all Spanish sympathizers. His vindictive slaughter was even carried inside the defenses of Manila.

The Spanish-General offered Twenty Thousand Dollars for Aguinaldo's head. To

this he replied in a very tense little note, "I need the sum you offer much, and will deliver the head myself." This he is reported to have done a few days latter, by slipping into Manila in disguise and gaining admission to the Governor's palace, where he disclosed his identity, and, at the point of a long, glittering bolo sharpened for the occasion, forced the governor to keep his promise and hand over the money.

He then siezed Cavite, a strongly fortified town seven miles from Manila; and captured and killed a large number of small Spanish garrison. The Spanish authorities became alarmed at his success and the rapidity with which he was collecting troops. Knowing the Filipinos' yearning for riches, the Spaniards finally offered Aguinaldo, and two other accomplices, each Two Hundred Thousand Dollars if they would leave the islands forever. They accepted the bribe and left for Hong Kong..

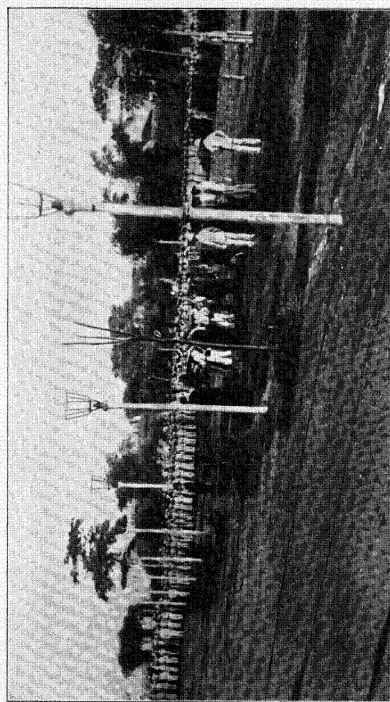
Aguinaldo's departure left the insurrection without a head; and the troops for want of a leader and supplies, gradually dissolved into small bands and retreated inland for permanent safety.

One-half of the bribe (Four Hundred

Thousand Dollars) given to Aguinaldo and his two co-partners, was furnished by the priests. Spain agreed to pay the remainder; but as her treasury was low, she only paid Two Hundred Thousand Dollars. This was deposited in a bank at Hong Kong where much trouble arose between Aguinaldo and his associates when they endeavored to get possession of it. Spain never paid the balance of the bribe, and Aguinaldo used this breach of contract as an excuse for returning to the islands at the breaking out of the Spanish-American war. He said he was not bound to keep the contract either by honor or duty, as Spain herself had violated its stipulations.

General Polavieja, the Governor-General of the islands, offered amnesty to the Filipino troops, many of whom, upon positive intelligence of Aguinaldo's trickery, readily accepted it.

These successive events defeated the object of the uprising, and the insurrectos dissolved themselves into tribal hordes that wandered hither and thither, plundering, pillaging, and murdering; doing far more damage to their own countrymen than to Spain.



Execution of Dr. Jose Rizal.

This insurrection, although badly broken up, did not die out. When the United States battleship, *Maine*, was blown up in Havana harbor and it became apparent that Spain and the United States were going to fight, these bands of insurrectionists began to re-assemble, and they soon formed a large army that surrounded Manila on all sides, except the bay, and greatly harrassed the population of the city.

SHOOTING OF DR. JOSE RIZAL.

One of the most appalling things in connection with the Insurrection of 1896, was the disgraceful shooting, by the Spaniards, of Dr. Jose Rizal, a brilliant Filipino surgeon and novelist.

He was born in 1861, and was educated in Madrid, Paris, Heidelberg, Leipzig and Berlin. He wrote too novels on Filipino conditions that were offensive to Spain. They were his "Noile me Tangere" and his "El Filibusterismo."

After the publication of these books, he was forced to leave the islands in 1887, in order to protect himself against the secret intrigues of the Spaniards who sought his life. However, he ventured to go back to

Manila in 1892. The Spanish authorities at once banished him to Dapitan, on Mindanao. When the Yellow fever epidemic broke out in Cuba in 1896, Rizal at once offered his services. Accordingly, he boarded a boat headed for Cuba, but was captured on high seas by Spain, taken back to Manila, given a mock trial and sentenced to be shot.

On the night of December 28, 1896—two days before his death—he wrote the following poem. Its lofty patriotism and its beautiful, chaste language will at once appeal to all who may read it.

TO MY COUNTRY.

(Translated from the original Spanish.)

Farewell, beloved country, longed-for region of the
sun,

Pearl of the Eastern Seas, our lost Eden.

To give thee this sad life of mine, joyfully I go;

And were it more brilliant, more pleasant, more
precious,

Yet for thee I would give it, I would give it for thee.

On fields of battle, wrestling with delirium,

Others are giving their lives to thee without hesita-
tion, without regret.

The place does not matter: Cypress, laurel or box-
thorn,

Scaffold or open field, fight or cruel martyrdom,

T'is all the same, if they demand it, the country and
the hearth.

I shall die, when I see the sky is coloring (getting
light)

And at last, announces the day behind the gloomy
cloud,

If great necessity to redden the (aurora) morning
sky

Pours out my blood, shed in good time

And guilds the fullness of the new born light.

My dreams when scarcely an adolescent youth,

My dreams when already a young man, full of vigor,

Were to see thee some day, Pearl of the Eastern
Seas,

With thy black eyes serene, high thy smooth fore-
head,
Without a frown, without a wrinkle, without a
blush.

In the dreams of my life, in my ardent life's desire,
My soul soon to depart, is calling to thee greeting.
Greeting, O what a beautiful death it is to give
thee!

Dying to give thee life, to die beneath thy skies,
And in thy enchanted soil through eternity to sleep.

If over (on) my grave thou wilt see some day spring
up
Between the luxuriant grass a simple humble flower,
Press it to thy lips, kiss my soul,
And down in the cool tomb I shall feel on my fore-
head
Of thy tenderness the breath, of thy breath the
warmth.

Let me see the moon with her calm and mild light,
Let my soul send forth the fleeting brightness,
Let the wind moan with its loud murmur;
And if there descends and rests upon my cross an
"Ave,"
Let the "Ave" sound forth its sweet song of peace.

Let the burning sun dry up the rains
And return them pure to heaven with my shout for
peace.
Let a friendly being weep over my early death,

And in the clear evenings when someone is praying
for me

Pray then also, my country, for me resting with
God.

Pray for all who have died without a chance,
For those who have suffered torments without a
wail

For our poor mothers that they may endure their
sorrow,

For orphans and widows; for such as suffer torture,
And pray for thyself that thou mayest see thy
final redemption.

And when in obscure night the churchyard is wrapt,
And thus lonely the dead keep their watch,
Do not disturb their repose, do not disturb the
mystery.

Perhaps thou mayest hear the harmony of harp or
psaltery,

T'is I, beloved country, I who sing to thee.

And when my grave forgotten at last by all
Has neither cross nor tombstone that designate the
spot

Until some one plow it up and moisten it with water,
And my ashes, before they return to nothing,
Shall enrich the dust of thy field which a scabbard
stirs up;

Then I mind not your leaving me to oblivion,
Thy atmosphere, thy plains, thy valleys I shall cross.
The quivering and clear note will be for thy ear
Aroma, light, colors, rumor, song, moan,
Constantly repeating the essence of my faith

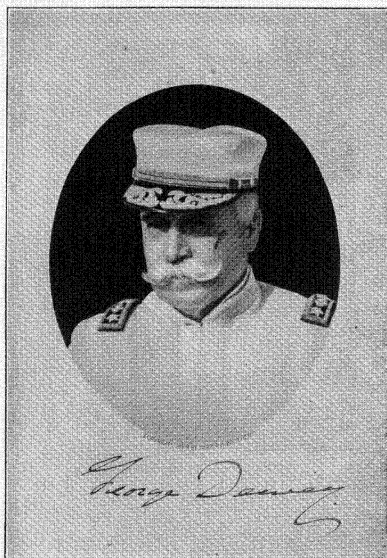
My country, my idol, pain of my pains,
Beloved Filipinos, hear my last farewell,
Here I leave thee all: my fathers, my loved ones;
I go where there are no slaves, no hang man, no oppressors,
Where (faith) confidence does not kill, where God is
he who reigns.

Goodby, father and brothers, parts of my soul!
Friends of my childhood in the last home;
Give thanks that I rest from the trials of the day.
Farewell, sweet lady-love, my friend, my joy;
Farewell, beloved beings, to die is to repose!

Amante De Filipino.

(Translation—Father of the Filipinos).

He was shot on the Luneta, near Manila Bay, and about a half mile south of the Walled City, December 30, 1896. The Filipinos have since erected to his memory a beautiful monument on the spot where he fell.



REAR ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY

Biographical—Born, Montpelier, Vt., 1837. Graduated U. S. Naval Academy, 1858. Served during Civil War under Admiral Farragut, made Lieutenant-Commander, 1865; Commander, 1872; Captain, 1884; Commodore, 1896; "Hero of Manila Bay." Admiral 1898.

BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

In order to understand the battle of Manila Bay, May 1, 1898, which resulted in such a triumphant American victory, one must know how it was that George Dewey—until that time, practically unheard of—happened to be in command of the American fleet.

Our war vessels, stationed in Asiatic waters, had been in command of Acting Rear-Admiral M. C. Nair. In the fall of 1897, the time for his retirement began to approach. This gave rise to the selection of his successor. Commodore John A. Howell and Commodore George Dewey were the two ranking naval officers available for the place.

At that time Theodore Roosevelt was Assistant Secretary of the Navy. He endorsed Dewey who received the appointment. The order detaching him from president of the board of inspection and survey at Washington and assigning him to duty as commander of our Asiatic fleet, was issued Oct. 21, 1897, to take effect on Nov. 30 following, with instructions to him to embark at San Francisco, December 7, on a Pacific mail steamer bound for Japan.

He arrived at Nagasaki, Japan, January 3, 1898; boarded the American flagship, Olympia; hoisted his commodore's pennant and took command. On February 11, he took the fleet to Hong Kong, China. Of this transfer Dewey says: "My decision to take the squadron to Hong Kong, was entirely of my own initiative, without any hint whatsoever from the department that hostilities might be expected."

He arrived at Hong Kong on February 17, and on the following day he received from Mr. Long, Secretary of the Navy, this cablegram:

"Dewey, Hong Kong:

"Main destroyed at Havana, February 15, by accident. The president directs all colors to be half-masted until further orders. Inform vessels under your command by telegraph."

Ten days later, he received from Mr. Roosevelt, Acting Secretary of the Navy, the following by cable:

"Washington, Feb. 25, 1898.

"Dewey, Hong Kong:

"Order the squadron, except the Monocacy, to Hong Kong. (The Boston and the Concord were on detached service). Keep full of coal. In the event of declaration of war with Spain, your duty will

be to see that the Spanish squadron does not leave the Asiatic coast, and then offensive operations in the Philippine Islands. Keep Olympia until further orders."

Dewey at once set to work studying maps of the Philippine Islands. He also made a special study of International Law and its application to the complications that might arise, in case war were declared between the United States and Spain, and he should go to Manila and be successful in his attack on the Spanish fleet stationed at that place. The information gained from his systematic study soon proved a great asset and evidently saved the world from an international war.

On April 24, Secretary Long sent to Dewey this cablegram:

"Dewey, Hong Kong, China:

"War has commenced between the United States and Spain. Proceed at once to the Philippine Islands. Commence operations, particularly against the Spanish fleet. You must capture vessels or destroy them. Use utmost endeavor."

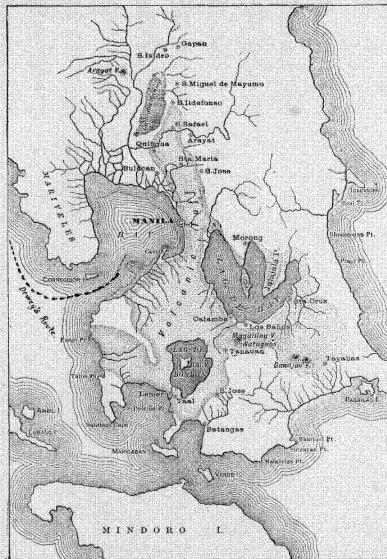
Accordingly, Dewey, upon a written request from Major General Black, Acting-Governor of Hong Kong, that he get his vessels outside of the neutrality zone within

24 hours, departed the next day with his entire fleet for Mirs Bay in Chinese waters, about thirty miles from Hong Kong; and on April 27, he set sail from Mirs Bay directly across the Chinese Sea, a distance of about 600 miles, for Manila.

A few days previous, Admiral Montojo, commanding the Spanish squadron in Manila Bay, set sail with his entire fleet for Subig Bay which is outside of Manila Bay, and north of the entrance to it, along the western coast of Luzon. Upon his arrival at Subig, he received from the Spanish consul at Hong Kong this cable.

"The enemy's (Dewey's) squadron sailed at 2:00 p. m. from Mirs Bay, and according to reliable accounts they sailed for Subig to destroy our squadron and then will go to Manila."

Montojo found the Spanish fortifications at Subig anything but satisfactory. He called his captains all aboard his flagship, the *Reina Christina*, and held a council of war. They voted unanimously to return to Manila Bay; await the arrival of Dewey and fight it out there. This was done; and it was just what Dewey desired. He rather feared a battle at Subig; but when this bay was reached he despatched the *Boston* and the



Map Showing Dewey's Route Into Manila Bay
Through the Boca Grande Channel
The battle was fought near Cavite seven miles
south-west of Manila.

Concord to reconnoitre it. He was delighted when no fleet could be found and he promptly advised his own vessels as follows:

"We will enter Manila Bay tonight and you will follow the motions and movements of the flagship which will lead."

Dewey's fleet consisted of the following ships, and they were arranged in the order given: Olympia, Baltimore, Raleigh, Petrel, Concord and the Boston. He also had two transports, the Zafiro and the Nanshan, and a despatch boat, the McCulloch. He arrived at the mouth of Manila Bay a few minutes after midnight, May 1, 1898.

The entrance to Manila Bay is divided into two channels by Corregidor Island situated nearly in the center of it. Dewey entered the bay by the southern channel, or Boca Grande, as it was called.

Suddenly they were detected, and the land batteries on the large rock of El Fraile, near the entrance to the bay, consisting of four seven-inch guns, opened fire on them at short range, and came very nearly hitting the Concord. The fire was promptly returned—the Raleigh shooting the first shot—and these batteries were soon silenced.

Corregidor Island was well fortified.

Dewey's vessels could be seen plainly from the island as they passed into the bay. Yet, strangely enough, not a single shot was fired at him from these batteries. There is but one explanation—the Spanish commander on the island was a huge coward..

Dewey's fleet then passed on into the bay and headed for the city of Manila on the eastern shore, about 35 miles distant.

Sunday morning, May 1, 1898—the day of the battle—was one of those calm, sunlit, Sabbath mornings in the region of Manila Bay, which all nature had exerted itself to create ideal; when priest and preacher, monk and peasant, under normal conditions, would have felt inspired for worship. Manila Bay stretched out her placid bosom in one great silvery sheet of liquid glory, as if she, too, had caught the rythm of the morn and had resigned herself to peaceful slumber. Not a dimple appeared on her crest. Every visible wave had crept oceanward and had disappeared. The only motion of the water was the slight heaving and falling of the glassy surface as the receding tidal waves betook themselves into hiding in their ocean mother's breast. It was as if the Master had returned to still the waves of Galilee.

But the enemy came! Dewey's flagship, the Olympia, with her brave Commodore standing fixedly at his post of duty on the upper deck, with her sharp nose pointing directly toward the path of the rising sun, with her sister ships closely astern, moved slowly in and cut the smooth surface of the bay in twain,—its parting folds gradually tucking themselves under at the edges as they were spread apart by the boat's bulging sides, until their widening ends were lost in the shallows along the sandy beaches of the far-distant shores.

Presently, there was a terrific splash of water, and a great hole appeared in the calm surface of the bay, only a few rods ahead of the Olympia. Dewey thought that the Spaniards, having been warned of his arrival by the exchange of shots with the land batteries at the entrance to the bay, were now beginning to explode submarine mines in the pathway of his vessels, but that their range finder had not properly gauged the distance, and that the first mine had been exploded prematurely,—a thing, although so reported officially by him, afterwards proved a mistake. It was a large solid shot that had been hurled at the cannon-bearded intruders by

one of the heavy guns composing the battery at the fort on Point Sangley seven miles south-west of Manila, across an arm of the bay; but which had fallen a trifle short. It was followed by a second shot which also missed its mark.

At this juncture, Dewey, seeing no fleet between him and the city of Manila, turned his field glasses southward toward the village of Cavite, where, against the heavily-wooded shore which formed a dark-green background, he sighted the Spanish squadron. It was now 5:06 A. M. The two fleets were about five miles apart. Dewey started to close up, and when he had reduced the distance between the two fleets to two and one-half miles, he calmly said to Captain Gridley who commanded the Olympia:

“You may fire when you are ready, Gridley.”

It was now 5:40 A. M. Gridley “Fired the shot heard 'round the world,” and the fight was on.

Kissed by the warm May-Day sun, watched by the excited throngs on the shore, quivering in every fibre from the recoil of their own cannon, belching forth from their facing sides volumes of smoke and shrieking

missiles of death, the two fleets engaged each other desperately. Shells rent the air, flames burst forth through the portholes of some of the ships, the men on both fleets cheered as they beheld the effect on the enemy of a well directed shot; smoke-begrimed gunners, with the perspiration washing light colored furrows down their manly cheeks, stood at their guns and worked like deamons as they swabbed their smoking cannon and crowded into them shot after shot. Hissing projectiles that missed the opposing ships and plunged into the bay were throwing volumes of splashing foam into the air. Dewey's vessels were moving in a figure eight and using alternately the several guns on their port and on their star-board sides, while the Spanish boats moved about promiscuously among each other over a small area, firing only as an opportunity offered. For two and one-half hours there was not a moment's lull in the battle.

Finally, Dewey, seeing that the shells from his own guns were doing little visible damage to the enemy, and having received a signal from one of his ships that certain calibres of ammunition were running low, ordered his squadron to retire to the center

of the bay, safely out of range of the guns on the Spanish fleet and of those on the walls of Manila. (The latter had also kept up a desultory fire upon the American fleet during the battle.) He then signalled the commanding officers of his several ships to come aboard the Olympia. This was done. A detailed report of their available ammunition showed that by equalizing the various sizes among the several ships of his command, he could continue the battle for nearly an hour longer, before starting for home. During this conference the men got their breakfasts, cooled off their cannon, swabbed and cleaned them, and got ready to obey further orders.

Everybody on board the American fleet was anxious to continue the fight even if they ran out of ammunition and had to make a bold dash for the Spanish fleet and lash their own vessels to the latter, climb over onto them and have a hand-to-hand fight.

After re-apportioning his ammunition, Dewey ordered a renewal of the attack. It had scarcely begun when the beautiful Spanish flagship, the Reina Christina, was seen to be on fire. She was hastily scuttled on the beach near Cavite where she was de-

sented amid great disorder by that portion of her crew who were still living and who were not so badly wounded as to be helpless. The dead and the dying were left to their fate. Magazines in other Spanish vessels soon blew up. In a short time most of them were on fire. In rapid succession they were beached, and then deserted by those who were able to leave.

At this juncture Dewey ordered the Concord to go inside of the enemy's line and destroy a large Spanish ship that lay off to herself in shallow water. The Concord literally disembowled her. The Petrel was also ordered to go through the Spanish line and to run in back of the docks at Cavite and sink or capture every vessel she met. In a few minutes she returned with six small vessels in tow as prizes, and flying at her mast-head was this signal, "Have destroyed eight vessels."

"Manlia Bay! Manila Bay!

How proud the song on our lips today;
A grand old song of the true and
strong,

And the Will that has Its way."

Although the American ships were struck repeatedly by the enemy's shots, no

effective damage was done. Dewey had not lost a man except his chief engineer, Randall, who had died of heat prostration just before the battle began; and only seven of his men were slightly wounded. On the other hand, he had shot away sixty-three tons of ammunition; had sunk every large vessel of which the Spanish fleet was composed, and had captured all the small tugs and launches in the harbor; had killed over 300 Spanish marines; had destroyed Spanish sovereignty in the Orient and excited the jealousy of all Europe; had handed over to the American people for protection, for education and for Christian civilization an island empire; and had inscribed his own name upon the hallowed diadem of American naval heroes, with that of Jones, of Lawrence, of Perry, of Farragut, and of Porter, where, please God! it will be fittingly held in human gratitude forever!

A little past the noon hour it was all over. Toward night the American fleet divided; the lighter craft took their stations near Cavite, the larger gun-boats stationed themselves before Manila. The gunners remained at their respective posts of duty throughout the long vigils of the night.

Everything became solemnly quiet; and the blazing sun, as its face reddened into nightly slumber behind the watery horizon of the Pacific, bade farewell to a finished deed, which, in the history of naval warfare, has never been surpassed or equalled; while the pale-faced moon, moving slowly up her appointed path, looked calmly down upon the blazing hulls of the Spanish ships as they slowly cremated their dead and dying.

Whatever of patriotic pride is aroused in the hearts of Americans by reading accounts of the battle, none have a single criticism to offer of the gallantry and heroic endeavor of the Spanish sailors. Outclassed, outgeneraled, outfought, they died like worthy sons of Castillian blood, and never deserted a single ship until she went to the bottom. Dewey sent the Spanish admiral a message congratulating him for the coolness and courage he had displayed in the presence of death, and received from him a most cordial reply.

When the stirring news reached Washington, President McKinley sent to Congress an eloquent message in which he said in part:

"The magnitude of this victory can hardly be measured by the ordinary standards of naval warfare. Outweighing any material advantage is the moral effect of this initial success. At this unsurpassed achievement the great heart of our nation throbs, not with boasting nor with greed of conquest, but with deep gratitude that this triumph has come in a just cause, and that by the grace of God an effective step has thus been taken toward the attainment of the wished-for peace. To those whose skill, courage and devotion have won the fight, to the gallant commander and the brave officers and men who aided him, our country owes an incalculable debt.

"I now recommend that, following our national precedents and expressing the fervent gratitude of every patriotic heart, the thanks of Congress be given Rear-Admiral George Dewey, of the United States Navy, for highly distinguished conduct in conflict with the enemy, and to the officers and men under his command for their gallantry in the destruction of the enemy's fleet and the capture of the enemy's fortifications in the Bay of Manila."

In response to this message, Congress passed a set of resolutions thanking Dewey and his men in the name of Congress and the American people for what they had achieved.

At the suggestion of Senator Quay, of Pennsylvania, Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, offered in Congress a resolution which was unanimously adopted, directing that

\$10,000 be appropriated to secure for Commodore Dewey a jeweled sword, and for the men in his command suitable bronze medals.

The following inscription appears on the beautiful damascened blade of the sword:

“The Gift of the Nation to

REAR-ADMIRAL-GEORGE DEWEY, U. S. N.,

In Memory of the Victory at Manila Bay,
May 1, 1898.”

Even old Montpelier, Vermont, the boyhood home of Dewey, was not to be outdone. A great public demonstration was held in the magnificent “Golden Fleece” on May 9th, and after that great auditorium had been made to ring for several hours with the stirring eloquence of inspired orators, a unique set of resolutions were passed, among which may be found this one:

“Resolved, That the city of Montpelier and the neighboring villages and towns do hereby, with great sincerity, happiness, and pride, vote its heartfelt thanks and congratulations to the officers and sailors of the Asiatic squadron, and especially to him the Commodore, George Dewey, who lead them with such ideal success, amid unprecedented obstacles, to a victory, the renown of which will never perish from the earth.”

When congress convened in December of that year, it passed a resolution reviving

the rank of "Admiral" which had become obsolete in the American Navy, and promoted Commodore Dewey to this rank for life.

When he returned to New York on the battle-scarred Olympia in the late summer of 1899, a nation turned out and sat at his feet.

Alas! how much different was brave Montojo received by his government. He was ordered home to be court-martialed for cowardice. Before starting, he wrote Admiral Dewey as follows:

"Being called to Madria to make answer to the charges which may be made against me, * * * I have to defend myself from the calumny which may be raised against me. For this purpose it would be of the greatest utility and much force if I were able to offer the highly valuable testimony of the authorized opinion of yourself, the distinguished Commander-in-chief of the squadron which I had the honor of engaging.

* * * *

"I know that my temerity in making this request of you is very great; but invoking the fact that we belong to the same profession, and remembering that you have more than once had the kindness to praise my conduct, I force myself to believe that this will be well received.

* * * *

"For my part, after begging your pardon a thousand times for the liberty which I am taking, I hope that you will kindly grant my request, for

which your faithful servant will be eternally grateful."

To this Admiral Dewey replied most felicitously. His letter was introduced as an "Exhibit" in Montojo's trial at Madrid, and it bore weighty influence in saving his life. Dewey was now using his pen to save the man whom he had unsheathed his sword to destroy. The letter in part is as follows:

"Although without accurate knowledge as to the condition of your ships, I have no hesitation in saying to you what I have already had the honor to report to my government, that your defense at Cavite was gallant in the extreme. The fighting of your flagship, which was singled out for attack, was exceptionally worthy of a place in the traditions of valor of your nation.

"In conclusion, I beg to assure you that I very much regret that calumnies have been cast at you, and I am confident that your honor cannot be dimmed by them."

Admiral Dewey's official report of the battle is brief and to the point. It is not however so interesting as his unofficial report from which the following is culled:

"This battle of Manila Bay was fought in Hong-Kong harbor; that is, the hard work was done there: the execution here was not difficult.

* * * *

"Signaling to prepare for action and follow the

flagship, I gave orders to steam past the enemy and engage their ships. The result you can see by looking at the sunken vessels in the harbor.

* * * *

"The battle was fiercely contested as long as it lasted; but the superiority of our fleet and ships, guns, men and marksmanship soon won for us the victory."

Admiral Montojo, commanding the Spanish Squadron, made an extended official report to his home government. Among other things he said:

"At 4:00 A. M., I made signal to prepare for action, and at 4:45 the Austria sighted the enemy's (Dewey's) squadron, a few minutes after which they were recognized, with some confusion, in a column parallel with ours, at about 6000 meters distant.

* * * *

"At 5:00 the batteries on Point Sangley opened fire. The first two shots fell short and to the left of the leading vessel (the Olympia).

* * * *

"In a few minutes one of the batteries of Manila opened fire, and at 5:15 I made signal that our squadron open fire. The enemy answered immediately. The battle became general.

* * * *

"At 10:30 the enemy returned, forming a circle to destroy the arsenal and the ships which remained to me, opening upon them a horrible fire, which we

answered as far as we could with the few cannon which we still had mounted.

* * * *

“Our casualties, including those of the arsenal, amounted to 381 men killed and wounded.”

COMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF FLEETS

Totals	Americans	Spanish
Number of ships	6	7
Displacement	19,098	11,689
Guns over 4-inch	53	31
Guns under 4-inch	56	44
Torpedo tubes	8	13
Officers and men	1,456	1,449

CAPTURE

Dewey notified the authorities at Washington that the city of Manila surrounded by her great stone wall on which were mounted hundreds of cannon, lay helpless before him; that he could easily take it, but that he could not hold it, as he needed all the men he had to operate his vessels.

Re-enforcements were, therefore, hastened to him from San Francisco, by water; and as fast as they arrived they were sent ashore and stationed around Manila prepar-

atory for the final attack. It is nearly seven thousand miles from San Francisco to Manila; consequently, it took three months to transport sufficient troops this long distance, to warrant an attack on the city.

It will be remembered that the insurrection of 1896 had been revived, and that a large army of Filipino insurgents surrounded Manila. This rendered it impossible for the Spanish army to get supplies.

General Wesley Merritt arrived on the scene, July 25, and he immediately took charge of the American land forces. Beginning with July 31, there began to be sharp encounters between the American troops and the Spanish forces who occupied the line of blockhouses and intrenchments by which Manila is surrounded on three sides. That night a lively skirmish took place in a drenching rain. Corporal N. E. Brown, Co. "D," 10th Pennsylvania Volunteers, was killed. He was the first American soldier to shed his blood in the Philippines. Later, ten more Americans were killed and forty-four wounded. A similar skirmish, accompanied by a light loss to our side, took place the next night, August 1. Another one was begun on August 5. The next day, Dewey sent word

to the Spanish commandant that he would shell the city if they did not stop. No more fighting was done till the final attack on the city, August 13.

Food became scarce in Manila. The commander, Captain-General Augustin, seeing the utter folly of attempting to defend the city against the inevitable attack of the American forces, offered to surrender. He was immediately recalled by Spain, and Fernin Jaudenes was placed in command. Dewey demanded of him the surrender of the city; he refused. Mr. Andre, the Belgian consul, then offered to act as an intermediary between Dewey and Jaudenes. His kindly offer was accepted by both parties. He explained to General Jaudenes how foolish it would be to shed so much blood in a hopeless defense of the city. Jaudenes harkened to his kindly advice, and arrangements were consummated whereby the Americans were to attack the city, August 13; the Spanish troops were all to vacate their positions and assemble inside the "Walled City," where they were to surrender.

August 13, General Wesley Merritt ordered the land troops to advance. Upon their approach, the Spaniards retreated as

previously arranged after firing a few random shots. The Americans who had also done more or less casual shooting during their advance, were ordered to "Cease Firing." Part of the American army followed the Spanish troops into the city and received the latter's guns when they surrendered. The remainder were halted when they reached the Spanish line of intrenchments about a mile and a half outside of the Walled City, and were deployed to keep the insurgent army from entering the city. The natives were bent on looting Manila. Admiral Dewey and General Merritt were determined that they should not. It took extreme tact to handle them.

Flag-Lieutenant Brumby, of Admiral Dewey's squadron, and Colonel Whittier, of General Merritt's staff, accompanied by Mr. Andre, the Belgian consul, went ashore about noon and entered the Walled City where they were courteously met by General Juadenes and Admiral Montojo; and the preliminary terms of capitulation were promptly agreed upon. They were as follows:

"1. The military forces of the United States shall occupy the city and defenses of Manila until

the treaty of peace between the two belligerent powers shall determine the final fate of the city.

"2. It being impossible for the Spanish forces of the garrison to evacuate the place either by sea, on account of the lack of steamers, or by land on account of the insurgents, it is hereby agreed that all the fighting forces capitulate with the honors of war, the officers keeping their swords, guns, horses and furniture, and the troops will deposit theirs in the place agreed.

"3. All persona included in the capitulation will be at liberty, being to live in their abodes, which shall be respected.

"4. The Spanish troops will remain in their barracks at the orders of their chiefs.

"5. The authorities and the forces of North America will carefully respect the persona, their dwellings and property, of the inhabitants of Manila and its suburbs.

"6. The banks, credit societies, industrial establishments, and those for educational purposes or any other, the object of which is humanity and civilization, shall continue open according to their regulations, unless modified by the authorities of the United States as circumstances may require.

"7. The expenses of living of the military and naval men will be paid with the funds of the Spanish treasury if there be enough, and in the contrary they will be aided with the amount that corresponds to the prisoners of war, according to their rank.

"8. The repatriation of the officers and soldiers and their families will be at the cost of the United States and also of the native officers which may desire to return to Spain.

"9. The Native troops will be dismissed from the service. (There were four regiments of these. They were well drilled. Later on they became Agunaldo's body-guard during the insurrection of 1899).

"10. The United States authorities, to the best of their ability, guarantee and will insure the safety of the lives and property of the inhabitants of Manila.

"The 7th article shall be construed to cover rations and supplies,—the United States to determine what is necessary.

"Complete returns of men shall be rendered to the United States authorities by organizations, and also full lists of public property and stores in their possession.

"The question of returning troops to Spain and the expense thereof to be determined by the United States Government at Washington.

"Arms will be returned to the men at the discretion of the United States authorities, and officers shall retain their side-arms."

Brumby returned to Admiral Dewey's flagship at 2:00 P. M. with a draft of the above report. It was accepted by Dewey and Merritt. He then returned to Manila, accompanied by two young signal boys; edged his way through the excited throngs until he reached the Spanish citadel, where, in sight of, and surrounded by a large number of Spanish troops not yet disarmed, he climbed up and hauled down the Spanish flag and

hoisted in its place OLD GLORY. As its streaming folds were unfurled to the light breeze, Dewey's whole squadron thundered forth a united salute that seemed to shake the whole earth. One of the American regimental bands that had just made its way into the city, upon seeing their own Country's flag go up over the ramparts of Manila, struck up "The Star Spangle Banner." Every body "uncovered;" and even the Spanish soldiers stood reverently with bowed heads and seemed to appreciate the fact that the conflict was over.

The next day, a commission, consisting of four American and three Spanish officers, met in Manila and arranged the final terms of surrender. They did not differ materially from the preliminary terms previously given herein in full.

A Peace Protocol between the United States and Spain had been agreed upon by the home governments on August 12th, but the difference in time of twelve hours between Washington and Manila and the slowness in transmitting the news, left Dewey and Merritt uninstructed, and so the capture of Manila took place, as planned, on August 13.

This surrender placed the Americans in possession of Manila and made them responsible for law and order throughout the entire archipelago. They met this responsibility heroically.

INSURRECTION OF 1899.

The Filipino insurrection of 1899 was a sequel of the Spanish American War. The natives were conceited and claimed that the surrender of Manila was due to their valor and that they had a right to march their entire army in and out of the city at will. This privilege they were denied. American troops, scattered somewhat, were stationed around the city to keep them out. The Filipinos at once occupied the line of block-houses around Manila which had just been vacated by the Spaniards. Owing to the small number of American troops, they had to establish stations nearer the city, representing a much smaller circumference.

The Filipinos knew nothing of the attributes and characteristics of any class of foreigners except Spaniards. The qualities which they found in them, they also applied to the Americans. Laboring under this delusion, they decided to drive the American

army of occupation from their shores. However, their chief aim seemed to be to loot Manila. To prevent this, General Otis who had succeeded General Merritt in command, established American posts not only on every road and pathway leading to and from the city, but also at all mid-way points where there was the slightest possibility of any large body of armed troops stealthily entering the city. As fast as re-enforcements arrived, these posts were strengthened.

Enmity between these two lines of armed warriors was only natural; yet it may be said in justice to the American soldiers, that they used all honorable means to avoid a conflict.

If the Filipinos had remained at their own lines of defenses and had not endeavored both day and night to create a clash by taking advantage of the American sentries on out-post duty, no blood would have been shed.

The Filipinos were armed with Mauser and Remington rifles which they had secured from Spanish garrisons whom they had captured; from the arsenal at Cavite which they plundered after Dewey shelled the place, May 1, 1898; from the sunken Spanish vessels which they robbed also during the pe-

riod of low tides; and from filibustering expeditions from the neighboring Malay countries.

A large percent of them had never used a gun, and they were anxious to try these new weapons.

For this purpose:

(1) They violated the rules of war daily and did many heinous things which they thought would provoke the American troops to open fire on them.

(2) They repeatedly pushed out small squads and established outposts in little clumps of timber very near the American lines. General Otis insisted that this must not be done. He demanded that the semi-circular zone between the two armies must remain neutral ground to prevent any unnecessary friction between them.

(3) In relieving their line of sentries, they would often insist on marching in the rear of the American sentries and sometimes in the rear of our outpost reserves, so as to ascertain our strength.

(4) Each new undertaking made them bolder and they finally resorted to bloodshed.

On the evening of January 10, 1899, Private Thomas Smith, Co. "E," First South

Dakota Volunteers, was "walking his beat" on outpost about three and one-half miles north-east of Manila, near Block House Number Four, when two Filipino soldiers, clad in citizens' clothes (plain white), entered his little path in the underbrush and started leisurely toward him. As Smith approached them, they stepped aside to let him pass, at the same time extending to him their accustomed salutation, "Buenos noches," meaning "Good night."

As soon as Smith passed them, one of them drew a bolo which he had concealed in his clothes, and struck at Smith's head. His evident intention was to kill him noiselessly and thus open one of the pathways leading to the city, so that the Filipino army could advance uninterruptedly under cover of the night.

The slight noise made by the Filipino in freeing the knife from his clothing attracted Smith's attention. He turned suddenly, and by so doing, received the blow, which, owing to his quick move, struck him in the side of the face just below his left eye, instead of in the back of the head, the knife passing on down deep into his face and jaw. His assailants started to run. Providence got them in

a line; Smith leveled his gun in an instant and fired. The one nearest him, fell dead; the other, mortally wounded, escaped to a native hut near by where he died a few days later. Smith was taken to the hospital at Manila where his wound was well cared for. He soon recovered, but his face will ever bear evidence of that foul attempt upon his life. On the following day, he was appointed Lance Corporal because of his coolness and bravery. July 26, following, he was made a Corporal, and on September 19, of the same year, he was promoted to Sergeant.

Many other thrilling events happened to the outposts of several other regiments. There was plainly no use in trying either diplomacy or threats to avoid the inevitable conflict whose war clouds had already risen above the horizon of peace.

The Pasig River enters Manila from the east. This was made the dividing line of the American army. The quadrant extending from the Pasig to Manila Bay on the north side of the city, was commanded by Major-General McArthur; that on the south side, by Major-General Anderson.

The point at which the trouble usually centered, was one wisely chosen by the In-

surgents, just north of the Pasig River, directly east of Manila, with the city lying between the place of attack and Dewey's gun-boats in Manila Bay. Trouble kept brooding at this point for over two months. On February 2, 1899, General McArthur sent the following note by Major Strong to the troops at this point:

“COMMANDING GENERAL,
Philippine Troops in Third Zone.

SIR:—The line between your command and my command, has long been established, and is well understood by yourself and myself. It is quite necessary under present conditions that this line should not be passed by armed men of either command. An armed party from your command now occupies the village in front of block house No. 7, at a point considerably more than one hundred yards on my side of the line, and is very active in exhibiting hostile intentions. This party must be withdrawn to your side at once.

From this date, if the line is crossed by your men with arms in their hands, they must be regarded as subject to such action as I may deem necessary.”

To this note, Colonel L. F. San Miguel* (St. Michael) replied as follows:

“MAJOR-GENERAL McARTHUR.

My Very Dear Sir:—In reply to yours dated this day, in which you inform me that my soldiers have been passing the line of demarkation fixed by

agreement, I desire to say that this is foreign to my wishes, and I shall give immediate orders in the premises that they retire."

Coloner Miguel kept his promise, and ordered his advance outposts to retire. This they did, but they returned again two days later with tremendous re-enforcements which they signalled to convene from the surrounding country, by means of huge red lights fastened to balloons. A large number of these were sent up during the nights of February 2 and 3. They were caught in the upper current of air and floated away over the horizon many miles distant, summoning all who saw them to prepare for war. This is the Filipino's method of communication, and answers their purpose quite as well as a perfect system of telegraphy.

The American soldiers and the inhabitants of Manila watched with intense disquietude while these massive birds of war

* Colonel Miguel having failed to gain distinction during the insurrection, at its close in the spring of 1902, he organized a band of Ladronez which harassed the American outposts and small bodies of travelers for nearly a year. He was slain in a skirmish with the native constabulary a short distance from Manila, March 27, 1903.

rose hour after hour throughout the night, on their deadly mission, like the venomous reptile who steals from his flowery home in some beautiful copse, during the silence of the night, dreaming of fastening his fangs in the flesh of mortal man,—but only to find that “The hero born of woman shall crush the serpent with his heel, while God goes marching on.”

That the conflict was premeditated by the insurgents is proved by the fact that the Filipinos in the city, fearing the bloody scenes which they knew were to take place in Manila on the night of February 4, were busy all day moving out into the country. Hundreds of quileses (two wheeled carts with one seat extending crosswise) and caromettas (two wheeled carts with two seats extending lengthwise), heavily laden with the crude belongings of the natives, and men, women and children,—kept passing out of the city through the American lines, across the narrow zone between the two armies, and on through the Filipino’s lines, over the hills to a place of apparent refuge, all through the day from early morn till late at night.

About 4:30 o’clock in the afternoon, a small crowd of natives was detected on the

obtuse-angled steel bridge over the Pasig River, near the east central portion of Manila, reading a 9x14 inch poster printed in Spanish with the following headlines in large capitals and signed by Auginaldo:

“La Independencia De Republica De Philippines” (The Independence of the Republic of the Philippines). An effort was made to seize this proclamation, but a fast-footed native snatched it and made good his escape into the bamboo district lying south and east of the bridge.

About twenty minutes before the firing began in the evening another group of natives was discovered in a bamboo shanty near the eastern extremity of Manila, with another copy of this proclamation. An effort to secure it caused the natives who were reading it to rush into a small closet separated from the remainder of the house by a thin partition, and to prepare for bloodshed by coming out armed with revolvers, swords and bolos. The matter was reported to headquarters at once but before a searching party could be sent out to seize a copy of the document, the firing had begun and the different regiments in Manila began to rush re-enforcements to their respective out-

posts to prevent the Filipino army from entering the city.

Just what this declaration contained is not positively known. Unofficial reports claim it was a proclamation from Aguinaldo ordering all of the natives in the city to join in a wholesale slaughter of all foreigners as soon as the firing along the chain of outposts should begin.

Eleven days later a similar order was issued. It angered the American authorities very much and they decided to punish Aguinaldo severely if they could catch him, for issuing it. Later on they found the original copy from which the proclamation was printed. It was signed by one of the insurgent officers and had been issued at Malabon, a city about seven miles north of Manila, Feb. 15, 1899. This excused Aguinaldo who denied his responsibility for the order. The original copy was sent to Washington where it will be kept with other papers of the war. Part of the order is herein given:

"FIRST, you will dispose so that at eight o'clock at night the individuals of the territorial militia at your order will be found united in all of the streets of San Pedro, armed with their bolos and revolvers, or guns and ammunition if convenient.

“SECOND, Filipino families only will be respected. They should not be molested, but all other individuals, of whatever race they be, will be exterminated without any compassion after the extermination of the army of occupation.

“THIRD, The defenders of the Philippines in your command will attack the guard at Bilibid, and liberate the prisoners and ‘presidarios,’ and having accomplished this they will be armed, saying to them, ‘Brothers, we must avenge ourselves on the Americans, and exterminate them that we may take our revenge for the infamy and treachery which they have committed upon us; have no compassion upon them; attack with vigor. All Filipinos en masse will second you—long live Filipinos’ independence.’

* * * *

“FIFTH, the order which will be followed in the attack will be as follows: The sharpshooters of Tondo and Santa Ana will begin the attack from without, and these shots will be the signal for the militia of Troso, Binonda, Quiapo and Sampaloc to go out into the street and do their duty; those of Paco, Ermita, Malate, Santa Cruz and San Miguel will not start out until twelve o’clock, unless they see their companions need assistance.

“SIXTH, the militia of Tondo will start out at three o’clock in the morning; if all do their duty our revenge will be complete. Brothers, Europe contemplates us. We know how to die as men shedding our blood in the defense of the liberty of our country. Death to the tyrants! War without quarter to the false Americans, who have deceived us! Either independence or death!”

These are only a few of the many positive facts that might be cited to prove conclusively that from first to last the American army assumed the defensive.

It was about fifteen minutes before nine o'clock in the evening of February 4, 1899, that the first shot of this terrible crisis whistled forth through the silence of the night. It was the "signal to shoot" for the Filipinos; and before its echo had died away, repeated volleys from the insurgents' guns were sweeping the Americans' lines all around the city.

Only those who participated in that awful night's struggle will ever know the full story.

The Pasig River receives the waters of the San Juan from the north, about one-half mile east of Manila. About three-quarters of a mile above their confluence, is a large stone bridge over the San Juan. This river had been, for a long time, the dividing line between the two armies, and the bridge over it was on the leading road-way to Manila, from the east.

Since it was on the opposite side of the city, from the bay, it could not be reached by Dewey's gun-boats safely, so long as the

American army occupied the intervening space; consequently, it appeared to the Filipinos that this would be the most vulnerable point of attack.

They kept a strong out-post at their end of the bridge and would not allow any American soldiers to pass. The American authorities, in turn, kept a sentry at their end of the bridge and would not allow Filipinos with side arms, to pass, but permitted those who were not armed to pass in unlimited numbers.

General McArthur, in his report to the War department says :

"The pertinacity of the insurgents, in passing armed parties over the line of delimitation into American territory, at a point nearly opposite the pipeline out-posts of the Nebraska regiment, induced a correspondence which, in the light of subsequent events, is interesting, as indicating with considerable precision, a premeditated purpose on the part of some one in the insurgent army, to force a collision at that point" (the bridge mentioned before).

On the evening of February 4, Private Grayson, of the First Nebraska Volunteers, was standing on guard at the American end of this bridge; there was no moon, and the darkness was exceedingly dense, when there

suddenly appeared on the bridge a Filipino lieutenant and three privates, all strongly armed, who advanced in perfect step toward him. In obedience to his instructions from the Officer of the Guard, he called, "Halt!" The summons was deliberately unheeded. Crouching somewhat, with guns in hands, they stealthily moved forward. Again Grayson cried out in a challenging tone, "Halt!" This second warning was also ignored. The Filipinos moved even more rapidly toward him than before. They were now within a few feet of him. He fired. The Filipino lieutenant fell dead. He was trying to get near enough to cut Grayson down in silence, so that under cover of the awful darkness, they might move their large army over the bridge and have the city at their mercy.

The first shot was fired by an American soldier. For this reason some people have ignored all that occurred prior to that very moment and have tried in vain to fasten the responsibility for the out-break upon the American troops. Not so. Grayson was exonerated for his heroic deed for the following reasons:

- (1) * Obedience of orders.
- (2) Self-defense.
- (3) If he had not fired and had

sacrificed himself, he would have endangered the life of every foreigner in Manila, as well as the entire American army of occupation. After all, it mattered little who "fired the first shot," as the Filipinos had set that dark night as their time for their dastardly undertaking, and just how it began or where the first shot came from, does not relieve them of the sole responsibility of initiating the conflict.

The American outposts were all strengthened, either by battalions or regiments, during the night, and at day-break the next morning (Sunday), February 5, each regiment advanced and captured the blockhouses in front of their respective positions; so that by noon, all the blockhouses and the entire line of entrenchments around Manila, had fallen into the hands of the American army.

The insurrection instituted on that fatal night, has long since ceased. No organized resistance is offered by the Filipinos who are now the recipients of education, culture

* His orders were: "If an armed party approaches, call out 'Halt.' After thus challenging them three times, if they continue to advance, shoot."

and refinement at hands of American authority. Despite the numerous privileges extended to them, little bands of marauders and thieves infest the islands. Filipinos fall greater victims to the outrages of these ladrones than do the American troops stationed at four hundred towns and villages throughout the archipelago.

From the breaking out of the insurrection till the spring of 1902, these two opposing forces fought hundreds of engagements, day and night, in all kinds of weather, and under many strange and startling circumstances,—each one resulting in the same triumphant verdict—"An American Victory."

During the numerous campaigns that were conducted by the American generals in the very heart of the enemy's country—the interior of Luzon—many individual deeds of heroism and chivalry have been performed which bespeak in silent but impressive eloquence the true valor of the American soldier.

Major-General Lawton conducted three telling campaigns through different parts of Luzon, and then unflinchingly sacrificed himself in the last engagement prior to the time he would have been made Governor-

General of the islands. Colonel Alfred S. Frost, with unsheathed sword and a determination which death alone could defeat led the First South Dakota troops through the deep Marilao River, March 27, 1899, and defeated several thousand of Aguinaldo's trained soldiers heavily intrenched on the opposite bank. It was a splendid victory for the Americans, yet it cost the lives of three of the most capable and beloved officers in the regiment, Adjutant Jonas H. Lien and Lieutenants Adams and Morrison, and a large number of enlisted men. Speaking of this feat the Minneapolis Times said a few days later:

"The famous charge of Roosevelt's Rough Riders at San Juan Hill was equalled if not eclipsed by the First South Dakota under the gallant Frost. Brave men to fight, heroes to die, patriots to serve, may well be inscribed on the regimental colors of the First South Dakota United States Volunteers. The charge of these men at Marilao ranks with any the regulars made at Santiago, if, indeed, it does not exceed any feat of this war of soldierly achievement. Their orders were 'Forward', and though an unfavorable river lay in their front and the farther side was crowded with intrenchments behind which the flower of Aguinaldo's army awaited them, they hesitated only long enough to insure the safety of rifles and cartridge belts and then dashed onward,



COLONEL ALFRED S. FROST
First South Dakota

Biographical—Born, Chicago, Feb. 5, 1858. Private 11th U. S. Inf., Sept. 13, 1881. Later, Corporal and Sergeant. Appointed 2nd Lieut., 25th U. S. Inf., Aug. 4, 1884. Graduated U. S. Infantry and Cavalry School, 1891. July 10, same year, appointed 1st Lieutenant. Professor Military Science, South Dakota State College, 1893. Instructor S. D. N. G., 1896. Military Secretary to Governor, with rank of Colonel 1897. Commissioned Colonel First S. D. Volunteers, spring of 1898. Commanded same regiment during Philippine campaign.

the cheer of victory in their throats, and the glare of battle in their eyes. This was not a case where "someone had blundered." It is doubtful whether that brilliant charge could have been stopped, though Otis himself had ordered 'Halt.'

"When shall their glory fade? To the friends and relatives of Lien, Adams, Morrison, Nelson, Mathew and James Ryan, Chase and Schraeder, we offer sympathy blended with pride and admiration, for their heroic deed. Not theirs only, but to the nation's."

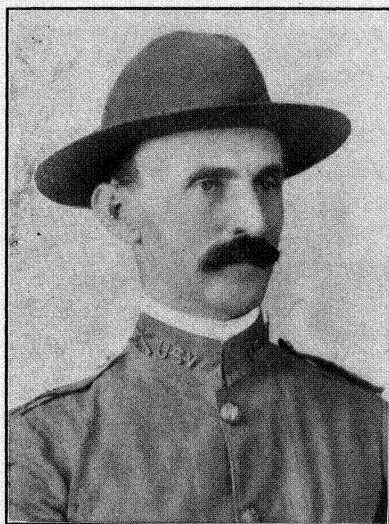
Shortly after this, April 23, Colonel John M. Stotsenberg, commanding the First Nebraska Volunteers, with a battalion of that famous regiment, surrounded on three sides by a large insurgent army near the little town of Quingua, rather than have it recorded on the sacred pages of history that the First Nebraska had ever retreated under fire, stepped to the front and commanded: "First Nebraska, 'Charge'!" and received three Mauser bullets in his own breast before the echoes of his fatal command had died away.

April 25, Colonel Funston and a few of his brave comrades in the Twentieth Kansas Volunteers, swam the Bagbag River, under a galling fire, and drove the enemy from their fortified position on the opposite bank.

Not all of the glory belongs to the officers: On April 27, Privates White and Trembly, Co. "B," Twentieth Kansas Volunteers, swam across the deep, broad, swiftly-flowing Rio Grande River, amid a veritable hail storm of bullets, and fastened a rope to the opposite bank, not far from the Filipinos' iron breastworks, by means of which Funston ferried a portion of his troops across on a raft, and opened a flank fire on the enemy's lines which drove them from their stronghold.

These are only a few of the many thrilling incidents that took place. Every regiment had in it men who distinguished themselves by many prodigies of valor, and whose coolness and courage in the face of death astonished the civilized world. The greatest feat of the insurrection was the capture of Aguinaldo by General Funston, described later.

The Volunteers who responded to the call for troops in April, 1898, were all relieved during the summer of 1899 by Regulars and those Regular Volunteers who had enlisted for two years longer, and were sent home. The new troops, after a series of brilliant expeditions both on land and sea



COLONEL JOHN M. STOTSENBERG

First Nebraska

Biographical—Born, New Albany, Ind., Nov. 24, 1858. Graduated from New Albany high school, 1876; from West Point Military Academy, 1881. Second Lieutenant, First Lieutenant and Captain in 6th U. S. Cavalry. Military Instructor, University of Nebraska. Major, then Colonel, 1st. Neb. Vols. Killed, Guingua, P. I., Apr. 23, 1899.

throughout the entire archipelago, were finally stationed at about four-hundred different points on the most important islands, where they are still doing garrison and police duty; hiring the few industrious natives to assist in cleaning out the filth of their ancient towns,—thus improving health conditions—and protecting the more civilized classes who are inclined to work, from the bands of mountain guerrillas who prey upon them without mercy.

Dispatch from Manila, January 29, 1902.

“A Filipino Major and three Lieutenants, with ten rifles, three revolvers and twenty-four bolos, surrendered to Major Anderson of the Sixth Cavalry yesterday, at Lipa. The major was brought in sick on a litter. He was cordially hated at Lipa where he looted \$55,000 worth of jewelry from prominent natives.”

AGUINALDO.

Emilio Aguinaldo, leader of the insurrections of 1896 and 1899, was born in the little town of Cavite, P. I., in 1872. His father and mother were both Tagalos. There is, however, a tinge of Spanish blood in his veins. When quite young he was sent to live with a Jesuit Priest who had charge of the spiritual affairs of the little town in which he was raised. His parents were very desirous that he should become a priest so they kept him with the priest for four, long, dreary years, after which he was sent to Manila and took a short course in the Medical department of the Pontifical University. His personal ambition, so he claimed, was to practice medicine. After leaving school in Manila, he became an officer in the Spanish army stationed in the Philippines. Spain knew he was a youth of exceptional talent, and she was desirous of using his influence in after years,—either as a priest or as an army officer—toward subjugating the Tagalos.

His service in the army was short, and he soon resigned and went to Hong Kong, in 1888, to continue his study of Medicine. While there he took more delight in keenly



Aguinaldo (in front row) and family

observing the British troops drill and in familiarizing himself with their tactics of war, than he did in his studies.

At the renewed solicitation of his parents (prompted by the priests), he left Hong Kong and went to Madrid where he spent two years more preparing himself for the priesthood. While there, he again became more fascinated by the pomp, the splendor and the maneuvers of the Spanish troops stationed at the capital, than he did by his Latin and other subjects belonging to the course of study.

When Spain was ready to send him back home, he flatly denied any intention on his part of becoming a priest and declared that his personal ambition from boyhood, had been to prepare himself for the army.

Returning to his native land, he became governor of Cavite, in 1896; but soon thereafter he was drafted into the Spanish army where with that sullen and vindictive spirit characteristic of his tribe, he silently and secretly assisted in planning the insurrection of that year, previously described.

The execution of Dr. Jose Rizal, the real leader of the outbreak, left Aguinaldo in command. This brought him into prominence.

The natives appreciated his genius and talent and looked to him as a safe leader. Alas! Their confidence was misplaced. No sooner had the insurrection taken firm root, than Aguinaldo accepted the bribe from Polavieja, Captain General of the Spanish army, and agreed to leave the country for ever. He went to Hong Kong and from there to Singapore, fearing lest his own people might plan to seek revenge for his unwarranted deed.

When war broke out between the United States and Spain, Aguinaldo had returned from his southern trip and was at Hong Kong again. In an interview with Admiral Dewey, he pledged his unfaltering support to assist in destroying Spanish sovereignty over the islands.

Dewey was a little suspicious of Aguinaldo's good intentions, but promised very courteously that, if all went well in his approaching naval combat with the Spanish, he (Aguinaldo) might return to Manila on the first United States boat leaving port.

When Dewey despatched the McCulloch to Hong Kong to cable home the news of his splendid victory, she, upon her return to Manila, brought Aguinaldo along.

He at once began to reorganize the ex-

cited Filipinos, who, again deluded by his eloquent promises, were willing to follow his leadership, not so much to gain independence from all foreign powers, as to bring on a fight. It is true that the better class of Filipinos looked at the matter rationally, but the lower element sought the army and were eager for bloodshed.

With his new troops Aguinaldo succeeded, through one of his characteristic Malay stratagems, in capturing the wife and children of General Augustin, the Acting Spanish Governor General of the islands, but, at the earnest suggestion of Admiral Dewey, he liberated them shortly afterwards.

Without waiting for the surrender of Manila, he proceeded to Malolos, twenty-two miles north-west of Manila on the Manila-Dagupan Railway, declared it the capital of his imaginary republic; declared himself "Dictator of the Philippines," and later, "President of the Philippine Revolutionary Government and Commander-in-chief of its army."

Malolos remained the temporary capital of the government that he was trying to reorganize until he was driven out and it was captured by the American troops, March 31, 1899.

From Malolos he went to San Fernando, —a beautiful city thirty miles further up the Manila-Dagupan Railway—which fell into American hands May 5, of the same year, thereby forcing Aguinaldo to roam hither and thither like a hunted fox until he was trapped and captured by General Funston of the United States Regular Volunteer Army, at the little town of Palanan, near the north-east coast of Luzon, in March, 1901.

Funston intercepted a letter which contained the signature of one of Aguinaldo's trusted generals. The letter ordered troops from farther south to move north to the place where he was quartered. Funston at once conceived the idea of taking a party of Filipino scouts and capturing Aguinaldo. His plan was to have four or five Americans with him and a large body of Filipinos, sufficient in number to cope with Aguinaldo's body guard;—he and his comrades were to play the part of captives held by the troops whom Aguinaldo had ordered to his rescue. The name of the officer whom Aguinaldo sent with the dispatch which General Funston intercepted, was forced to be forged as nearly as possible and attached to a note which an advanced guard was to carry to Aguinaldo

upon the arrival of the expected troops. When the supposed prisoners had an opportunity, they were to seize Aguinaldo; the accompanying Filipino scouts were then to open fire on his bodyguard while those who held him made good their escape.

Accordingly, General Funston went to Manila and submitted his weird proposition to General McArthur, who, knowing that Funston had never failed in any undertaking, agreed to the plans which were begun at once amid great secrecy. A gunboat carried the party to the north-east coast of Luzon and landed it on the shore, by means of cascoes, about ninety miles from where their coveted prize was preparing to celebrate his twenty-ninth birthday.

After three days of dreary marching over the mountains, through underbrush and streams, they came in sight of the little village. A small detachment was sent ahead with the shrewdly prepared note, carefully signed, notifying Aguinaldo that his expected re-enforcements had arrived, and asking him to send food for the troops and the American prisoners whom they had captured enroute. Aguinaldo at once sent some corn and other provisions, and in the course of

an hour or two, his welcomed host had reached his headquarters. As soon as the American prisoners were led to his cabin and the Filipino officer who had accompanied them had stepped inside, the native Maccabebe officer who had charge of the scouts, commanded: "There, Maccabebes, go for them." The scouts immediately opened fire on his outside guard at arm's length, killing many, while the rest who escaped capture sought refuge in the dense woods near by. Aguinaldo, hearing the firing, looked out and exclaimed: "Stop your wasting ammunition that way;"—as he himself said afterwards: "I thought they were firing a salute in honor of the arrival of reenforcements and their pleasure at seeing the American prisoners." Just at this moment, the native officer who had led the way, seized Aguinaldo, who, at once—but too late—saw what had happened. He snatched a revolver and tried to commit suicide, but was prevented from so doing by his trusted physician who had been by his side for many trying months. Funston and his comrades jumped into the scuffle, and in a few moments Aguinaldo and many of his bodyguard whom the native scouts had captured, were tramping toward the gun-

boat lying anxiously out of sight over the mountains, awaiting the outcome of one of the most brilliantly conceived and perfectly executed dare-devil achievements recorded in history .

The boat was finally reached in safety. The entire party was steamed back to Manila where General McArthur, fearful of the results of such a hazardous undertaking, impatiently awaited their return.

When Aguinaldo was taken up through the streets of Manila which he had not frequented for many long, bloody, disastrous months, and saw the thousands of native children on their way to school, and heard them speaking English as fluently as an American; saw too the improved conditions of the city in the comparatively short time it had been under American control; and observed his old friends who were mere beggars under Spanish dominion, now doing a good business, —prosperous, safe from outside interference or internal harm, happy and contented;—the tears filled his black eyes, and as they trickled down over his brawny cheeks that twinged with conviction, he looked up and exclaimed to those who had him in charge, "I never dreamed that

the Americans were so kind and generous, or that they would do so much for my beloved country."

He was presented to General McArthur, who, after extending to him a cordial greeting, and keeping him in the Governor's Palace with him for a few days in order to guarantee his personal safety, ordered him to be confined as a prisoner of war in one of the very best prisons in the city. His mother and wife who were at his old home in Cavite, were notified of his presence in the city, and they were permitted to call on him. He was given the freedom of Manila whenever he wished it, if accompanied by an American officer; but fearing the natives whom he had betrayed, he never dared to leave the prison door until he was liberated by President Roosevelt's Proclamation of Amnesty, July 4, 1902; and then he asked for a body guard.

A few days after his confinement in prison he asked for a paper and pencil; and in the course of a few hours, he handed out the following proclamation which he desired to have made public to all his people:

"I believe I am not in error in presuming that the unhappy fate to which my adverse fortune has led me is not a surprise to those who have been fa-

miliar with the progress of the war. The lessons taught with a full meaning and which have recently come to my knowledge suggest with irresistible force that a complete termination of hostilities and lasting peace are not only desirable but absolutely essential to the welfare of the Philippine Islands.

"The Filipinos have never been dismayed at their weakness nor have they faltered in following the path pointed out by their fortitude and courage. The time has come, however, in which they find their advance along this path to be impeded by an irresistible force which, while it restrains them, yet enlightens their minds and opens to them another course, presenting to them the cause of peace. This cause has been joyfully embraced by the majority of my fellow countrymen, who have already united around the glorious sovereign banner of the United States. In this banner they repose their trust and belief that under its protection the Filipino people will attain all those promised liberties which they are beginning to enjoy. The country has declared unmistakably in favor of peace. So be it. There has been enough blood, enough tears and enough desolation. This wish cannot be ignored by the men still in arms if they are animated by a desire to serve our noble people, which has thus clearly manifested its will. So do I respect this will, now that it is known to me.

"After mature deliberation I resolutely proclaim to the world that I cannot refuse to heed the voice of a people longing for peace, nor the lamentations of thousands of families, yearning to see their dear ones enjoying the liberty and the promised generosity of the great American nation.

“By acknowledging and accepting the sovereignty of the United States throughout the Philippine Archipelago, as I now do, and without any reservation whatsoever, I believe I am serving thee, my beloved country. My happiness be thine!”

PROCLAMATION OF AMNESTY.

On July 4, 1902, the government of the Philippine Islands promulgated the following proclamation by the President of the United States, granting full and complete pardon and amnesty to all persons, as therein set forth, for political offenses committed in the islands:

“By The President of The United States.

A PROCLAMATION.

“WHEREAS, Many of the inhabitants of the Philippine Archipelago were in insurrection against the authority and sovereignty of the Kingdom of Spain at divers times from August, eighteen hundred and ninety-six, until the cession of the Archipelago by that Kingdom to the United States of America, and since such cession many of the persons so engaged in insurrection have until recently resisted the authority and sovereignty of the United States; and

“WHEREAS, The insurrection against the authority and sovereignty of the United States is now at an end, and peace has been established in all parts of the Archipelago except in the country in-

habited by the Moro tribes, to which this proclamation does not apply; and

“WHEREAS, During the course of the insurrection against the Kingdom of Spain and against the Government of the United States, persons engaged therein, or those in sympathy with and abetting them, committed many acts in violation of the laws of civilized warfare, but it is believed that such acts were generally committed in ignorance of those laws, and under orders issued by the civil or insurrectionary leaders; and

“WHEREAS, It is deemed to be wise and humane, in accordance with the beneficent purposes of the Government of the United States towards the Filipino people, and conducive to peace, order, and loyalty among them, that the doers of such acts who have not already suffered punishment shall not be held criminally responsible, but shall be relieved from punishment for participation in these insurrections and for unlawful acts committed during the course thereof by a general amnesty and pardon;

“NOW, therefore, be it known that I, THEODORE ROOSEVELT, President of the United States of America, by virtue of the power and authority vested in me by the Constitution, do hereby proclaim and declare without reservation or condition, except as hereinafter provided, a full and complete pardon and amnesty to all persons in the Philippine Archipelago who have participated in the insurrections aforesaid or who have given aid and comfort to persons participating in said insurrection for the offenses of treason or sedition and for all offenses political in their character committed in the course of such insurrections pursuant to orders issued by the civil or military insurrectionary authorities, or

which grew out of internal political feuds or dissensions, between Filipinos and Spaniards, or the Spanish authorities, or which resulted from internal political feuds or dissensions among the Filipinos themselves duing either of said insurrections;

“Provided, however, That the pardon and amnesty hereby granted shall not include such persons committing crimes since May first, nineteen hundred and two, in any province of the Archipelago in which at the time civil government was established, nor shall it include such persons as have been heretofore finally convicted of the crimes of murder, rape, arson or robbery, by any military or civil tribunal organized under the authority of Spain, or of the United States of America, but special application may be made to the proper authority for pardon by any person belonging to the exempted classes and such clemency as is consistent with humanity and justice will be liberally extended; and

“Further provided, That this amnesty and pardon shall not effect the title or right of the Government of the United States, or that of the Philippine Islands to any property or property rights heretofore used or appropriated by the military or civil authorities of the Government of the United States, or that of the Philippine Islands, organized under authority of the United States by way of confiscation or otherwise; and

“Provided further, That every person who shall seek to avail himself of this proclamation shall take and subscribe the following oath before any authority in the Philippine Archipelago authorized to administer oaths, namely:

“(I, ———, solemnly swear (or affirm) that I recognize and accept the supreme authority of the United States of America in the Philippine Islands and will maintain true faith and allegiance thereto; that I impose upon myself this obligation voluntarily without mental reservation or purpose of evasion. So help me God.)

“Given under my hand at the City of Washington this fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and two, and in the one hundred and twenty-seventh year of the Independence of the United States.”

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

By the president:

ELIHU ROOT, Secretary of War.

EXTRACTS FROM MCKINLEY'S SPEECHES

Nothing could be more fitting for a conclusion to the historical part of this volume than the inspiring words of our martyred president, William McKinley.

Speaking at a banquet given by the Marquette Club of Boston in the spring of 1899, on "The Philippines," he concluded with the following splendid peroration:

"No imperial designs lurk in the American mind. They are alien to American sentiment, thought and purpose. Our priceless principles undergo no change under a tropical sun. They go with the flag. They are wrought in every one of its sacred folds and are inextinguishable in their shining as the stars.

"Why read ye not the changeless truth—

"If we can benefit these remote people, who will object? If in the years of the future, they are established in government under law and liberty, who will object? If in the years of the future, they are established in government under law and liberty, who will regret perils and sacrifices? Who will not rejoice in our heroism and humanity? Always perils and always after them safety. Always darkness and clouds, but always shining through them the light and sunshine; always cost and sacrifices, but always after them the fruition of liberty, education and civilization.

"I have no light or knowledge not common to my countrymen. I do not prophesy. The present is all

absorbing to me, but I cannot bound my vision by the blood-stained trenches around Manila, where every red drop, whether from the veins of an American soldier or a misguided Filipino, is anguish to my heart; but by the broad range of future years, when that group of islands, under the impulse of the year just passed, shall have become the gems and glories of those tropical seas, a land of plenty and of increasing possibilities, a people redeemed from savage indolence and to habits devoted to the arts of peace in touch with the commerce and trade of all nations, enjoying the blessings of freedom, of civil and religious liberty, of education and of homes; and whose children and childrens' children shall for ages hence bless the American Republic because it emancipated and redeemed their fatherland, and set them in the pathway of the world's best civilization."

Addressing the people of Minnesota on the return of the famous Thirteenth Minnesota Volunteers from their hard service in the Philippines, in the fall of 1899, he said:

"That congress will provide for them a government which will bring them blessings, which will promote their material interests as well as advance their people in the path of civilization and intelligence, I confidently believe. They will not be governed as vassals, or serfs, or slaves. They will be given a monument of liberty, regulated by law, honestly administered, without oppressing exactions, taxation without tyranny, justice without bribe, education without distinction of social condition, free-

dom of religious worship, and protection in 'life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness'."

The far-seeing policy of President McKinley, as set forth in these extracts, is worthy of note. Every prediction contained in them has come true, and every promise he made the Philippine people on behalf of the United States, has been faithfully kept.

CHAPTER II.
CIVIL GOVERNMENT
AMERICAN GOVERNORS

The battle of Manila Bay, May 1, 1898, left the bay and the harbor in Commodore Dewey's possession, and the City of Manila—the capitol of the Archipelago—at the mercy of his guns.

The capitulation of the Spanish garrison at Manila, August 13, 1898, let the government pass into the hands of General Wesley Merritt, Major General United States Volunteers, who had reached the islands—July 25, preceding.

General Merritt having been ordered to Paris to confer with the Peace Commissioners, he was succeeded in command by Major-General Elwell S. Otis, August 29, 1898.

General Otis was relieved of command and succeeded by Major General Arthur McArthur, May 5, 1900.

Civil government was inaugurated by a commission appointed by President Mc-

Kinley, July 4, 1901. Judge William H. Taft, of Ohio, was appointed the first Civil Governor of the Philippines under American authority. On the same day, Major General Adna R. Chaffe relieved Major-General Arthur McArthur of command of the military branch of the new government.

The army order effecting the change in the government is as follows:

General Orders,) Headquarters of the Army,
) Adjutant General's Office
No. 87.) Washington, June 22, 1901.

By direction of the Secretary of War, the following order from the War Department is published to the Army for the information and guidance of all concerned:

War Department, Washington, June 21, 1901.

On and after the fourth day of July, 1901, until it shall be otherwise ordered, the president of the Philippine Commission will exercise the executive authority in all civil affairs in the government of the Philippine Islands heretofore exercised in such affairs by the military governor of the Philippines, and to that end the Hon. WILLIAM H. TAFT, president of the said commission, is hereby appointed civil governor of the Philippine Islands. Such executive authority will be exercised under and in conformity to the instructions to the Philippine Commissioners, dated April 7, 1900, and subject to the approval and

control of the Secretary of War of the United States. The municipal and provincial civil governments which have been or shall hereafter be established in said islands, and all persons performing duties appertaining to the offices of civil government in said islands, will in respect of such duties report to the said civil governor.

The power to appoint civil officers, heretofore vested in the Philippine Commission or in the military governor, will be exercised by the civil governor with the advice and consent of the commission.

The military governor of the Philippines is hereby relieved from the performance, on and after the said fourth day of July, of the civil duties hereinbefore described, but his authority will continue to be exercised as heretofore in those districts in which insurrection against the authority of the United States continues to exist, or in which public order is not sufficiently restored to enable provincial civil governments to be established under the instructions to the commission, dated April 7, 1900.

By the President:

ELIHU ROOT,
Secretary of War.

By command of Lieutenant-General Miles:

THOMAS WARD,
Acting Adjutant General.

The complete list of the American civil governors and governors general to date is as follows:

WILLIAM H. TAFT, President of the Philippine Commission, March 16, 1900, to July 3, 1901;

Civil Governor, July 4, 1901, to January 31, 1904.

LUKE E. WRIGHT, Civil Governor, February 1, 1904, to February 5, 1905; Governor-General, February 6, 1905, to April 1, 1906.

HENRY C. IDE, Governor-General, April 2, 1906, to September 19, 1906.

JAMES F. SMITH, Governor-General, September 20, 1906, to November 10, 1909.

W. CAMERON FORBES, Governor-General, November 11, 1909, to September 1, 1913.

FRANCIS BURTON HARRISON, Governor-General, September 2, 1913.

ISLANDS CEDED TO U. S.

By the terms of the Treaty of Peace, Spain ceded the Islands to the United States, upon the following stipulation: "The United States will pay to Spain the sum of Twenty Million Dollars (\$20,000,000) within three months after the ratification of the present treaty."

Since that time, the United States has purchased from Spain three large islands and several smaller ones not included in the original treaty, for which she paid Spain One Hundred Thousand Dollars (\$100,000).

The Filipinos objected to the transfer of sovereignty over them. What they desired

was immediate and complete independence. They claimed that as the governed party they should have a voice in saying who should govern them; and they cited the following clause from our own Declaration of Independence to prove their contentions: "Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed."

However, the two parent countries, Spain and the United States, in making the transfer, were plainly within their legal rights, whether they were within their moral rights or not, for our International Code specifically provides, "A cession of sovereignty implies that sovereignty may be bought and sold and delivered without the consent of the governed."

The long time consumed by the Peace Commissioners in the preparation of the treaty with Spain, and the subsequent delay of the United States senate in effecting its ratification, aroused the Filipinos to a state of uneasiness which finally developed into open revolt on the night of February 4, 1899—two days before the treaty was adopted.

This changed the aspect of the whole situation. Nothing definite could be done to

establish a permanent government in the islands until the natives, now in open revolt, were brought under subjection.

Peace in general having finally been restored, the Fifty-seventh Congress of the United States, at its session which convened December 2, 1901, took up the proposition of enacting legislation suitable for a complete civil government of the Philippine Islands. A complete Philippine Code was finally agreed to and adopted, on July 1, 1902, after a long, able debate.

OUTLINE OF THE PRESENT GOVERNMENT.

The insular government is composed of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches. The Governor General and heads of the four executive departments are also members of the Commission, which is the upper house of the Legislature and is the exclusive legislative authority over the territory inhabited chiefly by Moros and other non-Christians.

The Governor General as the executive head is assisted by four secretaries of departments, each of which has a number of bureaus, twenty-one in all, and four minor offices or divisions.*

Aside from these the City of Manila, not being a part of any province, is considered as being under the Governor General as are also the following three bureaus:

The executive bureau.

The bureau of civil service, which is independent of any department.

The bureau of audits, which is independent to a still further degree, in that while administratively under the control of the Governor General, the Auditor is appointed by and is responsible to the Secretary of War.

All the legislative power formerly conferred on the Philippine Commission in all

* The department of the Interior embraces the bureaus of health, lands, science, forestry, and weather.

The Department of Commerce and Police includes the bureaus of constabulary, public works, consulting architect, navigation, posts, coast and geodetic survey, labor, and the office of the supervising railway expert.

The Department of Finance and Justice has the bureaus of justice, customs, internal revenue, and treasury.

The Department of Public Instruction is divided into the bureaus of education, agriculture, supply, prison, and printing, and to it are also attached the university of the Philippines, the Philippine library, and the sales agency board.

that part of the Island not inhabited by Moros or other non-Christian tribes is vested in a legislature consisting of two houses—the Philippine Commission and the Philippine Assembly.

The present Commission consists of four Americans and five Filipinos. The members are appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

The Assembly membership must be at least fifty and not exceed one hundred, apportioned according to population, but no province to have less than one member. On October 16, 1907, the first session of the Assembly was inaugurated. It is now composed of eighty-one members.

Elections for delegates to the Assembly are held on the first Tuesday of June each fourth year, dating from 1912, and those elected take office on the 16th of October next following, serving for four years, or until their successors are elected and qualified.

The Legislature convenes annually on October 16, its regular sessions being limited to ninety days, not including Sundays and holidays; and upon call of the Governor General it may convene in special session for not exceeding thirty days.

All acts of the Commission, as well as those of the Legislature, are reported to Congress, which specifically reserved the power and right to annul the same. Congress has never annulled any such act.

The organic act provided for the biennial election of two Resident Commissioners to the United States, who are entitled to recognition as such by the executive departments at Washington. No person is eligible to such election who is not a qualified elector in the islands, owing allegiance to the United States, and who is not yet thirty years of age. The House of Representatives, by resolution agreed to February 4, 1908, extended to these Commissioners the privileges of the floor of the House, with the right of debate; and in June, 1910, Congress provided that the Commissioners should be elected for four instead of two years.

The judicial branch is organized in three grades; the Supreme Court, the courts of first instance, and those of the justices of the peace.

The Supreme Court is composed of a Chief Justice and six associate justices appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. Aside from

its functions as an appellate court, it has original jurisdiction to issue writs of mandamus, certiorari, prohibition, habeas corpus, and quo warranto in the cases and in the manner prescribed in the code of civil procedure, and to hear and determine the controversies thus brought before it and in other cases provided by law. In all cases involving constitutional questions (or arising under acts of Congress) and in civil suits involving \$25,000 or more, an appeal lies from it to the Supreme Court of the United States.

There are now eighteen judicial districts of the courts of first instance, with twenty-four judges, twelve of whom are Filipinos. These judges are appointed by the Governor General and confirmed by the Commission.

The organized municipalities and settlements and townships have justice of the peace courts,—the justices and auxiliary justices being appointed by the Governor General with the consent of the Commission, from a list of qualified persons submitted by the judges of the courts of first instance in the districts.

The City of Manila has a municipal court for criminal cases, in addition to the justices' courts for civil cases.

A peculiar court which Congress saw fit to establish in the Philippines is the Court of Land Registration. This is a sort of general land office court which hears arguments over disputed land titles and enables the Filipinos to acquire patents to their small homesteaders.

QUALIFICATIONS OF VOTERS

The Organic Act establishing civil government in the Philippine Islands, provided for qualification of the voters as follows:

Every male person twenty-three years of age or over who has had a legal residence for a period of six months immediately preceding the election in the municipality in which he exercises the suffrage, and who is not a citizen or subject of any foreign power, and who is comprised within one of the following three classes:—

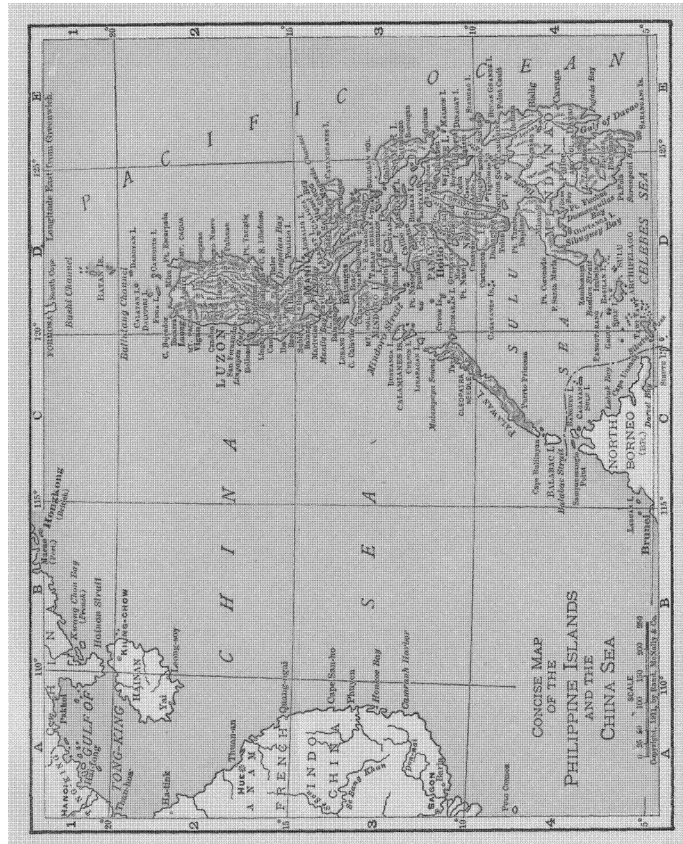
(a) Those who, prior to the thirteenth of August, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, held office of municipal captain, gobernadorcillo, alcalde, lieutenant, cabeza de barangay, or member of any ayuntamiento;

(b) Those who own real property to the value of five hundred pesos or who annually pay thirty pesos or more of the established taxes;

(c) Those who speak, read, and write English or Spanish—shall be entitled to vote at all elections; **Provided, That officers, soldiers, sailors, or marines**

of the Army and Navy of the United States shall not be considered as having acquired legal residence within the meaning of this section by reason of their having been stationed in the municipalities for the required six months.

The organized cities and towns of the Philippine Islands, with the exception of the city of Manila, the Moro Province, the settlements of the non-Christian tribes and such other exceptions as may be made by special-territory acts, are all governed by this general law.



CHAPTER III.
GEOGRAPHY
LOCATION AND SITUATION.

The Philippine Islands are a portion of Oceanica, lying east of the southern extremity of Asia, between the Pacific Ocean and the China Sea. Their latitude and longitude as specified in the Treaty of Peace under which terms Spain ceded the Islands to the United States, are as follows:

Article III of the Treaty of Peace—
“Spain cedes to the United States the Archipelago known as the Philippine Islands, and comprising the islands lying within the following lines:

“A line running west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude, and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachi, from the 118th to the 127th degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence along the 127th degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, to the parallel of 4 degrees 45 mins., north latitude, thence along the parallel of 4 degrees, 45 mins., north latitude to its intersection with the meridian of longitude 119 degrees 35 mins., east of Greenwich, thence along the

meridian of longitude 190 degrees 35 minutes east of Greenwich to the parallel of latitude 7 degrees, 40 minutes north of its intersection with the 116th degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence by a direct line to the intersection of the 10th degree parallel of north latitude with the 118th degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the 118 degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning."

Thus, it can be readily comprehended by the terms of the treaty that the islands lie between 4 degrees 45 minutes and 20 degrees north latitude, and between 118 degrees and 127 degrees east longitude, reckoned from the meridian of Greenwich. *

NUMBER OF ISLANDS.

Old Spanish authorities give the number of islands in the Archipelago as one thousand two hundred eighty, but modern writers estimate them at fourteen hundred. This slight numerical difference, resulting from investigations made two or three hundred years apart, might be partially accounted for in three ways:

* It throws them about two degrees farther east if reckoned from the meridian of Madrid, in Spain.

(1) The old-fashioned sailing vessels used at the time of Spain's count, might have rendered it quite impossible to pass around so many small islands to ascertain their exact number.

(2) Many of the islands being nothing but the peaks of lofty mountains sticking their crowns through the blue water of the Pacific, and being of volcanic formation, it is not improbable that numerous earthquakes—especially those of 1641 and 1645—could easily have changed the number slightly.

(3) The entire Archipelago bears unmistakable evidence of being nothing but the plateaus and mountain peaks of a submerged continent—at one time a portion of Asia—now a detached portion of the Himalaya Mountains and their accompanying plateaus.

Many of its highest mountain peaks are slightly buried beneath the ocean's wave, and in a climate where coral insects abound in myriads, and where coral formation of new islands and the enlargement of old ones are constantly going on, it is certain that the number would not remain the same. Yet, as these formations are comparatively slow

when measured by historic decades, it would be impossible for so great a change to have taken place during their known history. It is, therefore, a conservative estimate to place the number at fourteen hundred—the exact number not being positively known.

AREA.

The exact number of islands being still under dispute, it makes a calculation of the exact area impossible. Spain estimated it at 114,125 square miles; the United States estimates their surface at 114,356 square miles,—the latter being quite approximate.

They, therefore, lack but a trifle of being as large as Great Britian, are a little over half as large as France, and are practically equal to Nebraska and Oklahoma combined.

POPULATION.

The population is about nine millions, consisting of sixteen thousand Europeans, one hundred fifty thousand Chinese, Spanish-Filipinos (half-breeds born in the islands), a few Negritos (the original inhabitants), Chinese half-castes, and various oceanic Malays.

CLASSIFICATION.

Nature has divided the Archipelago into four divisions, as follows:

(1) Northern Division—Luzon, the largest and most northerly island of any consequence in the group (area 40,982 square miles), and its adjacent islands the largest of which are Mindoro, Catanduanes, Follilo, and Marinduque.

(2) Central Division—The Visayas, a cluster of islands south of Luzon, the most important of which are Samar, Leyte, Bohol, Cebu, Negros, and Panay.

(3) Southern Division—Mindanao, the second largest island in the group (area about 36,000 square miles), situated near the southern extremity of the Archipelago, and the small islands that encompass it; also the Sulu Archipelago, a chain of small islands extending from the south-east point of Mindanao to Borneo.

(4) South-western Division—Palawan, a long narrow island, and a few smaller ones extending in the same general direction, which connects the island of Mindoro, which belongs to the first group, with the northern point of Borneo, forming between them and

the Sulu Archipelago the large Sea of Mindoro. (Trace these divisions on the map).

COAST LINES.

The coast lines of all the islands are exceedingly irregular, forming, by their peculiar indentions, hundreds of gulfs and bays which make fine natural harbors for vessels of every draught.

By reference to the map it will be seen that Luzon and Mindanao are entitled to special mention on account of their immense number of contour forms, many of which are so nearly closed at the mouth as to prevent the large ocean waves caused by typhoons, or even the tidal waves, from entering and doing any damage to anchored vessels.

SURFACE.

Many of the very smallest islands are nothing but large boulders of some submerged mountain peak, projecting above the surface of the water, and are barren of both vegetable and animal life. Some of the islands consist of a mountain range (see Palawan) and are, therefore, rough and rolling, and are inhabited only in a few valleys.

All the largest islands are the elevated plateaus and their surrounding mountains, which, upon the contraction of the earth, retained an elevation slightly above the level of the sea, and are, therefore, very swampy. The central parts of Luzon, Mindanao, Panay, Cebu, Samar, and several others, are of this same formation. The general character of the surface is therefore, either low level and swampy, or else exceedingly mountainous.

MOUNTAINS.

The mountain system extending throughout the Archipelago is, unquestionably, a continuation of the lofty systems of eastern Asia.

The ranges are all short—usually from 75 to 150 miles in length,—and with the exception of those on the island of Luzon they extend in every conceivable direction, showing the numerous and tremendous upheavals of the earth's crust that have taken place in their respective localities. In the north central part of Luzon, in a region perfectly level for over one hundred miles south of it and twice as far to the north, stands the imposing isolated mountain of South Caraballo—

grand, stupendous, majestic, with its towering summit penetrating the overhanging clouds and pushing on up through the azure blue as far as the eye can reach. This lone mountain seems to be the head of all the mountain ranges on Luzon, for each of them rising out of the ocean's depth in the form of a cape extends toward this same peak, each losing itself in the marshes at its feet. There are many lofty mountain peaks ranging from 2,000 to 10,000 feet above sea-level, dotted here and there throughout the Archipelago.

Mention is made of a few of the most important ones and their relative elevations:

Apo (Vol.)	10,965	Data	6,500
Bactan	9,185	Besao	6,500
Halcon	8,850	Isarog	6,450
Banajao (Vol.)	8,520	Sibuyan	6,410
Mayon (Vol.)	8,290	Mantalingajan	6,200
Polis	7,500	Maquiling (Vol.)	6,198
Pagson	7,327	Bulusan (Vol.)	5,900
Asin	7,285	Mariveles	4,677
Madia-as	7,150	Canlaon	4,590
Nangtud	6,720	Arayat	2,250
Namaque	6,590	Taal (Vol.)	1,050
Quianga	6,560		

Many of the above are extinct volcanoes.

VOLCANOES.

Among the many features of importance and peculiar attraction in the Philippines, are the volcanoes of Apo on the island of Mindanao, and Taal in the province of Batangas on the island of Luzon, about forty-two miles south of Manila.

Apo is 10,965 feet high. Its crater became closed centuries ago, but was subsequently blown open by gaseous eruptions during earth-quake disturbances, at three different places. These new craters became the outlets for its lava which as it passed out over the top and ran down over its sides, gradually built up three miniature volcanoes on top of the old one. Thus it is today, a volcano culminating in three volcanic peaks. These three baby volcanoes are now kept busy throwing out sulphur from the bowels of the large mountain on which they rest. In other words, they act as chimneys for the great furnace of sulphuric flames beneath.

During the winter months, when this volcano does not happen to be in a state of active eruption; snow gathers on its three peaks and gives to them a beautiful silvery appearance. After a violent eruption, during the summer months, the sulphur adheres

around their sides, imparting to them a deep golden color, which attracts the eye of the traveler many miles away.

Taal is a low volcano, 1050 feet high, situated about thirty-five miles south of Manila, on a small island in a lake which bears the same name. It has a peculiar, oval-shaped crater, 7,500 feet long and 6,200 feet wide. In 1754, it underwent a tremendous eruption, throwing cinders, knee deep, into the streets of Manila, and completely destroying four smaller towns near by, setting them on fire and burying them beneath molten rock.

A large column of smoke issues from its crater day and night, and on clear mornings it can be seen from Manila, forming into a stratus cloud against the sky.

In addition to the above, there are also Mt. Mayon, 8290 feet high, on the island of Luzon, which had its last eruption in 1897, doing considerable damage; also Isarog, which has been silent since 1720. Bulusan has two craters like Mt Vesuvius, but it is nearly extinct, very rarely emitting even a column of steam.

RIVERS.

The excessive rain-fall, the numerous high mountains shedding water in every di-

rection, the vast areas of low lands and swamps—all combine to give rise to thousands of streams not far apart. It is seldom that the traveler goes over one and a half miles without crossing a river. The towns are all built along the banks of these streams which are to the Filipino with his little canoe—who knows nothing of roads and bridges—what the public high-way is to an American. As the islands are almost all narrow, these streams are short, ranging from twenty to three hundred miles in length, and they have deep, swift currents.

The principal rivers on Luzon are the Rio Grand de Cagayan in the north-east part, 270 miles in length; the Aqua in the west central part, 143 miles in length; the Rio Grande de la Pampanga, 135 miles in length, flowing into Manila Bay, from the north; the Vicol, 110 miles long, emptying into San Miguel Bay; and the Pasig, 18 miles in length, rising in Lake Laguna de Bay and emptying into Manila Bay from the east, separating the city of Manila into two parts.

The largest river in the Archipelago is the Rio Grande de Mindanao on the island of Mindanao, a large, swift stream rising in Mt. Quimanguil and emptying into the Cele-

bes Sea, with a length of 300 miles, navigable by large steamships for a distance of 110 miles "up stream."

On this same island is the large Agusan River, 252 miles long, near whose mouth stands the city of Butuan where Magellan landed and celebrated mass.

WATER-FALLS.

The most noted waterfall in the Archipelago, and one of the grandest in the world, is the Fall of Botocan, near the boundary line of La Laguna and Tayabas provinces on the island of Luzon. This fall is 460 feet high. Like all high water-falls that are perpendicular, the weight of the water as it strikes on the rocks below, causes it to beat itself into a spray which as it rises like huge clouds of mist, oftentimes glitters in the morning sunshine and forms millions of tiny rainbows. There is also a beautiful fall of lesser importance in the Iligan River on the island of Mindanao, and two others near the source of the Rio Grande River on the same island, besides several smaller ones found in many of the mountain torrents.

LAKES.

There is only one large lake in the Islands. A few small ones are scattered throughout the Archipelago, yet there are many swamps which swell into large shallow lakes during the rainy season.

The largest lake is Laguna de Bay, in the province of La Laguna, about 10 miles east and lying to the south of Manila, about 150 miles in circumference. Lake Taal surrounding the volcano of Taal, is about 70 miles in circumference.

Lake Candaba, about 35 miles in circumference, in the province of Pampanga just north of Manila, doubles its size during the rainy season. Hagonay, Cagayan, Mangabon, Bato, and Buhi, are the other small lakes scattered over Luzon.

There is a beautiful fresh water lake, about 12 miles in circumference, on the island of Mindoro, and another, somewhat smaller, on Leyte.

There are two fairly large lakes in Mindanao, which, during the rainy season, spread out for many miles, uniting their waters and flooding the country along the Rio Grande river.

SPRINGS.

The entire region around Manila, covering a radius of about 20 miles, abounds in medicinal and thermal springs. Their waters contain every known composition and are used for bathing and for curative purposes. One of these is a short distance north of Blockhouse No. 4, which furnished nearly all the drinking, bathing and cooking water of the South Dakota regiment for several months; and another is about a mile farther east which furnished a generous supply of water for the Colorado regiment.

The largest and most important spring is that of San Rafael, situated in the province of Bulacan, about 15 miles from Manila. Its waters gush forth from a crevice in a large boulder lying in a deep ravine, near the San Rafael church, and are both thermal and medicinal. It contains lime, nitrogen and sulphur, and is used in the treatment of all skin diseases, and troubles of the alimentary canal.

About a mile from this its sister spring, the Santa Matilda, containing properties similar to the Rafael and used for the same purposes, bubbles up out of the bottom of a tiny pool.

Not far away is the spring of San Jose, containing iron and soda, and used for chlorosis, anæmia and all digestive irregularities.

Six springs, containing chloride, bi carbonate of soda, and bi-carbonate of calcium, rise near each other in the town of Los Banos on the coast of lake Laguna de Bay. Their waters are all drained into the same pool where they are used for skin diseases, gout, rheumatism, diabetes, catarrh of the intestines, indigestion, and all forms of nervous disability.

Four other springs, similar to these, are also found on the edge of the lake not far from them, and are used for the same purposes, also for throat troubles arising from colds.

Many others, similar in character, might be mentioned.

The hot springs which are by far the most important, owing to their many healing properties, are found near the little village of Tivi in the province of Albay.

These springs are Nature's refuge from the numerous climatic diseases which not only fasten themselves upon the foreigner when he arrives, but are a constant source of annoyance to the natives themselves.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

All tropical countries are to a certain extent unhealthy, owing to the rainfall, the decay of vegetation, the constant dampness, and the lack of winter snow to purify the atmosphere. The Philippine Islands, lying wholly within the north half of the Torrid Zone, have their corresponding share of sickness; yet it may truthfully be said, that they have the healthiest tropical climate in the world. It is of course hard for a foreigner to adjust himself to its humidity, owing to the uniformity of atmospheric pressure which holds the barometer almost constantly at one point for several months at a time.

Contrary to the opinion which some people have acquired from unreliable authorities, it never becomes very hot or very cold. During the summer months the thermometer ranges about 97 degrees Fahrenheit, and during the winter months, about 85 to 89 degrees. The hottest days are 98 1-2 degrees, the coldest 73 degrees. These two common extremes have been exceeded but three times in the last one hundred years. During the month of January 1881, the thermometer registered 71 degrees Fahrenheit at Manila,

and twice since then it has reached 99 above.

The climate naturally divides itself into three seasons; namely, the Rainy Season, covering that period from the middle of June to the middle of November; the Dry Cool Season, extending from the middle of November to the middle of February, and the Dry Hot Season which continues from the middle of February till the middle of June.

These seasons are regulated by the two prevailing winds called Monsoons, and by the revolution of the earth.

The first monsoon sets in about June 10, and continues till October. It comes from the south west and is called the South-West monsoon. It is warmed in passing over the China Sea and the heated surface of the oceanic islands situated in its course. During the prevalence of this monsoon, the precipitation is abundant, rain oftentimes falling for several weeks with scarcely a stop.

The second, called the North-East monsoon, blows in just the opposite direction from November till February. During this period the atmosphere is dry and cool, and the climate is one of the most delightful in

the world. Varied winds prevail during the remainder of the year.

Heavy storms, called Typhoons, visit the region of the islands during the South-West monsoon, and do a great deal of damage to vessels at sea, besides sweeping across the islands at a rate of from fifty-five to eighty-five miles per hour, doing much damage to cities and other property in their path-ways.

During the earth's revolution, when the sun "Is on its northern tour," it crosses the equator March 21, and reaches its northern limit— $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees N. latitude—June 21. During this time each portion of the Philippines receives the direct rays of the sun, which passes over Manila—12 degrees N. latitude—about the third week in May. This of course accounts for the hot season which prevails at this time. When the sun is nearing its northern limit at the Tropic of Cancer, the South-West monsoon sets in, followed by almost incessant cloudiness and rainfall, which, during the months of July and August, while the sun is passing back over the Archipelago, prevents the weather from growing so intensely warm as it does in May and June. During the Rainy Season, the elec-

trical display is wonderful. The clouds sail near the earth and blanket it to such an extent as to prevent the escape of the deep rumblings caused by the thunder which seems to shake the whole earth with the violence of its deep-toned melody.

Let the reader imagine himself to be an American soldier standing on out-post guard, all alone; wrapped in the gloom of night, drenched in torrents of rain; guarding his sleeping comrades and serving his country; himself an illumined target during each dreadful flash of lightning, for the treacherous Filipino who lurks in the dark forest with Mauser in hand, and he will immediately conceive a new definition of *Patriotism*.

SOIL.

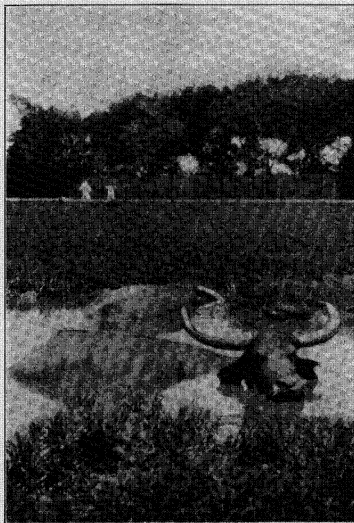
The soil on the plains and in the valleys is a rich loam heavily intermixed with a fine sand, in some places appearing white; in others, brick-colored. It is exceedingly fertile. The luxuriant growth of vegetation which decays each year is a splendid fertilizer. After being so thoroughly saturated with water during the rainy season, when the sun comes out late in the fall it bakes it dry and hard.

In the mountain valleys, during the excessive rain and storms, great masses of earth, carrying large trees and rocks which have been broken loose from the mountain sides, are washed down in the form of *debris* to the plains where *erosion* sets in and crumbles them down to *detritus* which carried away over the low lands near by, forming a thin, rich layer of *talus*. Where the mountains are near the shore, this work is constantly going on; and as it mixes with the millions of sea shells which the tide washes up daily, it is constantly widening the islands and forming a good bed for coral formations which may be found at almost any point.

PRODUCTS.

VEGETABLE.—A dense growth of hardwood timber including vast forests of Mahogany, is found everywhere. Along all of the streams is a heavy growth of bamboo—a tree closely resembling the American willow, but growing to a far greater height, and covered with long stiff thorns which are exceedingly poisonous to the flesh.

Domestic fruits such as apples, peaches, and pears do not grow at all. Oranges are found in some places, but these never ripen and are unpleasant to the taste.



Carabous Taking a Bath

Among the great variety of native fruits are the banana, cocoanut, mango, pine-apple, and about forty-five other kinds of fruit peculiar to the Philippines alone. Bananas grow in the greatest abundance and serve as the Filipinos' bread. Large groves of Nipa palms grow in swampy regions and are used to thatch the sides and roofs of the natives' huts.

ANIMAL.—Only a very few wild animals have been found in the Philippines, owing to the density of the population whose natural inclination is to hunt; also to the rugged mountains surrounded by dreary swamps which render their escape impossible.

The largest and most numerous domestic animals are the water-buffaloes, commonly called caribous—large animals weighing about 1200 pounds, with a jet black skin covered by a very scanty coat of hair. They look like an American ox, except that their long black horns curve backward. They live in the water a great deal of the time and subsist mostly on shoots and young rice. They are large and powerful, easily brought under subjection, and are used for oxen by the natives. The female caribous are kept for their milk the same as our cows. It is esti-

mated that there are 500,000 of these animals now in the Archipelago.

In and around the largest cities are found many Chinese ponies—small animals not much larger than our Shetland ponies; poorly fed, and so brutally misused by the Filipinos that the United States has had to extend our humane laws to the Philippines for their protection. Hogs and dogs are also found to a considerable extent.

The javali, a species of wild-boar, is found in the forests of a few of the islands. Monkeys of every known specie abound in thousands.

The rivers are full of huge crocodiles which render bathing a dangerous sport. The shallow waters of Manila Bay and many other places throughout the Archipelago, are filled with water snakes of all sizes. The natives, while fishing, oftentimes catch the large ones, take them ashore and skin them, after which they tan the skin, use it to cover the toes of moccassins, and to make pocket-books and other articles.

At the time of Magellan's landing in the Archipelago, the swamps were filled with Boa-Constrictors, but the natives have killed a great many of them and only a few are found now in the most secure places.

A specie of small black snake about a yard in length, abounds in the rice-fields and marshes.

Many lizards and other species of reptiles are present everywhere.

INSECTS.—Mosquitoes exist in such abundance as to cause death sometimes by their bites. Their presence every month in the year makes it necessary for the War Department to send over head-nets for the soldiers, to prevent mosquito bites.

Large black ants are found by the tens of millions. The abundance of rain prevents them from burrowing their homes into the ground. They, therefore, select a bunch of bamboo containing several stalks growing near each other, and then carry particles of sand and rubbish and fill in between them until their homes come to a peak some four to six feet above the ground. They eat the leaves of the bamboo and other vegetation near-by.

Another beautiful insect is the fire-fly. It circles around large trees at night, lighting up the awful darkness with the fantasy of its wings.

There are myriads of butterflies including nearly as many varieties.

In addition to the above, there are thousands of centipedes and trantulas lurking around every old stump, log, or building. Their bites are exceedingly painful and unless properly cared for within a short time, they will produce death.

MINERALS.—Gold is found in the mountains and along the beds of streams. Just to what extent it exists in the islands is not known as only a comparatively few mines have ever been opened and they have been poorly worked.

Copper has been found at different places in Luzon, Mindanao, and Panay; jasper in the mountains near the mouth of Manila Bay; mercury in Mindanao and Panay; Marble-quarries in Romblon and a few of the adjacent islands; and alabaster at various places in Luzon and Mindanao.

There is plenty of coal in Luzon. Some veins are many miles in length and from fifteen to twenty-five feet thick. Iron, petroleum, sulphur, lead, and such deposits as alum, gypsum and amianthus, have been found at various places throughout the archipelago.

Owing to the savagery of the mountain tribes, foreigners have never dared to go

into the mountain regions to work the mines to any considerable extent.

EXPORTS

Tobacco is raised in great abundance in the Philippines, but as all the natives smoke from their infancy, it is practically all consumed at home, and is therefore not worthy of mention as an article of commerce, although Manila cigars are now being exported in quite an abundance to the United States.

The same thing is true of rice. Since it is the chief article of diet among the Filipinos and Chinese, it, too, is consumed at home.

Sugar-cane grows abundantly, and sugar in its unrefined state is shipped to several foreign countries, principally Germany, Spain, England and the United States.

The main article of export is hemp from which are made water-proof ropes and the highest grade of binding twine. It is used by farmers wherever grain is grown, for tying grain into bundles. The large ropes used by all steam ships and sailing vessels, are made from this plant, because they will not shrink and harden when exposed to damp weather.

The shrub is usually planted every two years where it is cultivated; but if left undisturbed to shed its pollen, it will perpetuate its own species for many generations. It has yellowish-green flowers with which it is covered during the blooming season. It grows at various places in the Philippines, but is raised chiefly along the eastern coast of Luzon.

There is a rope factory in Manila where some of it is made into different sized ropes. The Filipinos harvest their rice by hand leaving it unbound, so that they have little use for hemp; therefore, it is practically all placed upon the markets of the world.

In addition to the uses previously mentioned, its seed is used as food for cage-birds; and after preparation, as oil for lamps, or in other forms for paints and varnishes. A tincture is also extracted from this oil, which is used by physicians in the treatment of certain diseases.

HEMP EXPORTS FROM THE PHILIPPINE
ISLANDS.

Fiscal Years 1899-1913.

Twelve Months Ending June 30,—	Total		To United States	
	Long Tons	Dollars	Long Tons	Dollars
*1899	65,118	6,666,886	24,422	2,492,274
1900	75,476	11,398,943	25,358	3,446,141
1901	109,231	14,453,110	17,872	2,402,867
1902	108,265	15,841,316	44,810	7,261,459
1903	130,159	21,701,575	70,526	12,314,312
1904	129,742	21,794,960	60,912	10,631,591
1905	128,564	22,146,241	72,196	12,954,515
1906	110,399	19,446,769	61,068	11,168,226
1907	112,895	21,085,081	57,469	11,326,864
1908	114,003	17,311,758	48,043	7,683,950
1909	147,621	15,833,577	77,958	8,534,288
1910	168,090	17,404,922	97,737	10,399,397
1911	163,033	16,141,340	65,494	7,410,373
1912	151,554	16,283,510	68,474	7,751,489
1913	142,292	23,044,744	62,708	11,613,943

* August 20, 1898—June 30, 1899.

Thus it will be seen by the foregoing table that while only 37½% of the hemp exports from the Philippine Islands was coming to the United States, in 1899, today we are receiving over 44% of it.

Other exports from the Philippines are rattan, honey, wax, bananas, hardwood, and sea-shells.

TOTAL EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE FROM P. I.

Dec. 31	Total	United States	Other Countries	Percent to United States
1891	\$20,878,359	\$ 4,389,609	\$16,488,750	21
1892	19,163,950	2,903,648	16,260,302	15
1893	22,183,223	2,994,897	19,188,326	14
1894	16,541,842	3,683,092	12,858,750	22
1899	14,846,582	3,935,255	10,911,327	27
1900	22,990,373	2,960,851	20,029,522	13
1901	24,503,353	4,546,292	19,957,061	19
1902	28,671,904	11,475,948	17,195,956	40
1903	32,396,746	13,071,426	19,325,320	40
1904	29,149,500	11,654,968	17,494,532	40
1905	33,454,774	14,840,407	18,614,367	44
1906	32,642,892	11,869,289	20,773,603	36
1907	33,097,867	10,329,387	22,768,480	31
1908	32,601,072	10,450,755	22,150,317	32
1909	34,924,337	14,726,513	20,197,824	42
1910	40,628,463	17,241,725	23,386,738	42
1911	44,587,291	19,827,030	24,760,261	44
1912	54,784,738	22,814,238	31,970,500	42

IMPORTS

That the United States has been the most prominent beneficiary of her occupancy of the Philippine Islands, is best evidenced by her cotton exports to them. In 1894, the last normal year in the Philippines under Spanish dominion, the United States exported to the islands only \$347 worth of cotton cloth, while in 1912, our cotton exports to the Philippines amounted to \$5,204,359. Strange as it may seem, this was a greater amount than was

purchased by China. The amount taken by the Philippines and China together for 1912 equaled one-third of the total cotton exports for that year from the United States.

The total imports of all kinds into the Philippine Islands from the United States in 1894, amounted to only \$362,878, while in 1912, they amounted to \$24,309,010; that is, since the United States took possession of the Philippines, our sales to the islands have multiplied 65 times, while 39 per cent of the total imports into the islands is from America.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE TO THE
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Dec. 31	Total	United States	Other Countries	Percent to United States
1891	\$16,798,294	\$347,338	\$16,450,956	2
1892	16,314,901	208,392	16,106,509	1
1893	15,890,502	956,706	14,933,796	6
1894	14,250,717	362,878	13,887,839	3
1899	19,192,986	1,353,086	17,839,900	7
1900	24,863,779	2,153,198	22,710,581	9
1901	30,162,471	3,534,255	26,628,216	12
1902	33,342,166	4,153,174	29,188,992	12
1903	33,811,384	3,837,100	29,974,284	11
1904	29,577,731	5,098,820	24,478,911	17
1905	30,050,550	5,589,946	24,460,604	19
1906	26,403,768	4,477,886	21,925,882	17
1907	30,453,810	5,067,538	25,386,272	17
1908	29,186,120	5,101,836	24,084,284	17
1909	31,084,419	6,445,331	24,639,088	21
1910	49,719,361	20,068,542	29,650,819	40
1911	48,024,407	19,156,987	28,867,420	40
1912	61,667,951	24,309,010	37,358,941	39

CHAPTER IV.
M A N I L A.
HISTORY

Manila, the capital of the Archipelago, is a typical old Spanish city of 234,137 inhabitants (census of 1910). It was founded, or discovered, by Legaspi in 1571. At that time it was a city of 40,000 population. The Pasig river divided it into two parts—Manila, or that portion of the city lying on the southern bank of the river, and Tondo, or that portion situated on the northern bank of the stream. Manila was ruled by a native king, named Rajah Mantanda; and Tondo, which was subordinated to Manila, was ruled by a petty king, named Lacondola. Legaspi landed and promptly proclaimed himself governor.

In 1590, during the Spanish reign of Gomez Dasmarinas, 1000 Chinamen were employed to build a stone wall around Manila proper, or the main city on the southern bank of the river. It has since become known as Old Manila, or the Walled City, while all of the rest of the city outside of the wall, on both banks of the river, is now known as New Manila.

The wall which encircles Old Manila is three and a half miles in length, 30 feet high, from 60 to 85 feet wide, and composed of solid concrete blocks. Although it has stood for three and a quarter centuries, it is still in a perfect state of preservation. About 20,000 people live inside of it.

Around the outside of the wall, until as late as 1903, there was a deep moat; but the American army surgeons, convinced that this old ditch which reeked in filth was in a large part the cause of many of the various epidemics in Manila, persuaded President Roosevelt to issue an order to have it filled up. This was promptly done; and today a beautiful drive-way encircles the old stone wall, over the bosom of the old moat.

New Manila is divided into many districts, covering several square miles of territory. Its principal divisions are: Tondo, Binondo, Pueblo, San Jose, Santa Cruz, Quiapo, San Miguel, San Sebastian, Sampaloc, San Marcelena, Ermita and Malata. The latter lies a mile south of the Walled City, along the beach, and is the prettiest and the healthiest suburb of Manila.

During the reign of Acunia, in 1603, a fire destroyed nearly one-half of the city.

Again, in 1645, the great earthquake of that year reduced the entire city to ruin, and left only a few stone buildings and the wall standing. Once more, nearly the entire population was swept down by the smallpox epidemic of 1688.

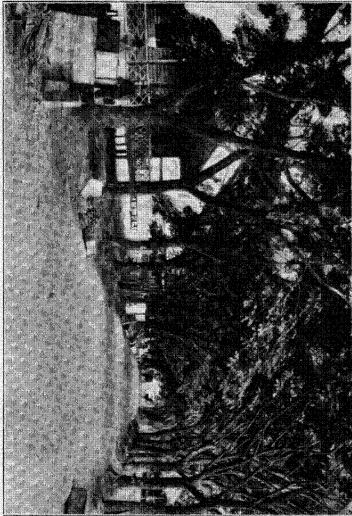
During the war between Spain and Great Britain, in 1762, the city was bombarded by English troops and compelled to surrender, but it was restored to Spain by the treaty which was concluded the following year (1763).

It remained under Spanish control until it was captured by Admiral Dewey and General Merritt, August 13, 1898, since which time it has been under American jurisdiction.

In the spring of 1899, the insurrectionists set fire to a large part of New Manila and destroyed it. The remainder has been cleaned up by American troops and Chinese, and health conditions have been greatly improved.

LOCATION AND SITUATION

Manila is located twelve degrees north of the equator. In that latitude the earth rotates approximately 1000 miles per hour,



Driveway, near Malate, Manila, Luzon.

so that there are no lingering dawns or slowly increasing twilights; in fact, both are of only a few minutes duration.

The city is situated on the delta of the Pasig river, along the eastern shore of Manila bay. It occupies a low swampy piece of ground, which makes drainage and sanitary matters a difficult proposition.

WATER SUPPLY

When the Americans captured Manila, in 1898, they found the city's water supply being secured through a three-foot pipe from a point in the San Mateo river, nine miles away. The city, for the installation of this system, owed an incalculable debt of gratitude to the generous Senor Carriedo, a philanthropic Spanish physician of Manila, who died in the Eighteenth Century, after devoting his entire fortune to the development of this enterprise.

The Americans found this water to be inadequate, badly contaminated, and a menace to the public health. The Philippine Commission, on April 14, 1905, acting under authority from Congress, passed an act authorizing the City of Manila to incur an indebtedness of \$4,000,000., for the construc-

tion of a huge water basin and the establishment of an adequate sewerage system. The water bonds, amounting to \$1,000,000., were sold during the following January. Strange to say, they were all bought in the the United States, and a premium of \$25,000 was paid for them. The new basin was completed in two and a half years, and the water was turned into it November 12, 1908. Since that time, health conditions have greatly improved in Manila. The yearly average number of children who died in the city, of convulsions, was reduced from 1,921 to 500.

SEWERAGE

For over four centuries Manila had for a sewerage system nothing but blind ditches beneath or else beside, of their stone sidewalks. The city being but a few feet above the level of Manila bay, old-time engineers thought it could not be drained.

In January, 1906, the Philippine Commission let the bid for the construction of 52 miles of sewers, at a total cost of \$1,631,053. 20. The work was completed in May, 1909; and today Manila has one of the finest, up-to-date sewerage systems of any city in the world. The effect of this on the public health cannot be overestimated.

PHILIPPINE GENERAL HOSPITAL

One of the finest and best equipped hospitals in the world was formally opened in Manila in 1910. It is called the "Philippine General Hospital." It has in connection with it a training school for Filipina nurses, and a clinic hospital for the Philippine Medical College of the University of the Philippines, located also in Manila. In 1912, the degree of "Graduate Nurse" was granted to 35 Filipina young ladies. All but one of them continued in the service of the government. Could an institution of this kind have been found in Manila during the Insurrection of 1899, many a lad who is "sleeping the years of his manhood away" in Philippine soil would have been spared to us and the hot scalding tears of anguish that streamed down so many fond American mothers' faces when the sad news of their sons' deaths was received, might have been shed as tears of joy over their sons' safe return.

ICE PLANT

Manila supports a large ice plant and brewery. Stick ice eight inches square and four feet in length is sold all over the city,

especially to the large saloons along the Escolta—the main business street in Manila. The United States has erected several smaller plants where artificial ice is now made for the use of sick soldiers in the government hospital, and for the city at large.

CHURCHES

With but one exception the churches of Manila are built of solid rock. The San Sebastian is a solid steel structure with not one block of wood or a board in it.

These churches are large and commodious, and have stood for many generations—some of them dating back very nearly to the earthquake of 1645.

At specific intervals, about twelve feet from the floor, along both sides of the rooms' in each of them, there are boxes in the form of steel cages in which Spanish guards used to stand with gun in hand during mass, to prevent the wily Filipinos from rushing in and stealing their sacred images of Christ and the Saints of old.

ORPHANS' HOME.

On a little island in the Pasig river, connected with each bank by the apex of an

obtuse shaped steel bridge, a benevolent Spaniard, a few years since, erected an Orphans' Home for the girls of Manila whose parents were dead or whose mothers had deserted them with heartless cruelty to care for themselves.

These girls are taken to this Home, cared for, given moral instruction, and finally become the better class of Filipina women.

On this same island is a small insane asylum.

PENITENTIARY

The old Spanish penitentiary, called Bil-libid Prison, is situated in the extreme northern part of the city, in a small district named Dulumbayan. It stands on a low, swampy piece of ground, surrounded on three sides by almost impassible swamps, and occupies about eight acres of ground. It is a thrilling place to behold. The executions that have taken place inside its massive walls for the last one hundred years, exceed in barbarity a hundred fold the crimes for which its inmates have been incarcerated.

To formulate a definite idea of it, one needs only imagine a large wheel lying on

the ground,—the felly, octagonal in shape, and composed of a stone wall twenty-eight feet high and four feet thick. To complete the mental picture, imagine the hub to be a large circular stone building about thirty-seven feet high, formerly occupied by Spanish guards. The spokes are represented by long, narrow, stone buildings occupied at night by the convicts. These spokes lack about eighty feet of connecting with either the hub or the felly. The circular spaces between the hub and spokes and between the spokes and felly, each have a hard-beaten path in them walked by armed guards day and night, and are known as the “dead lines.” There are sixteen spokes. Only two of them connect with the hub and felly. These two are solid stone walls equal in thickness to the outside wall, but lack two feet of being as high, and are connected with it and the circular stone building in the center, thus dividing the penitentiary into lateral halves.

When Spain turned it over to the United States there were over one thousand prisoners in it, composed of Filipinos, Spaniards, Chinese and various oceanic Malays. They had every disease known to that climate, and were half starved and most cruelly treated.

In the north-west corner of the eastern half is a stone room about twelve feet square. In this room stands the executioner ready and eager for his awful task. The death penalty is inflicted by means of a garrote—a Spanish device for strangulation. It looks like a set of five hundred pound Standard scales. The convict has his arms and legs tied and is set upon it. A clamp is placed about his neck with one end of it projecting through the upright bar. There is a thumb screw, or hand nut, fastened upon this end and gradually tightened until the victim is choked to death.

IWAHIG PENAL COLONY

The Iwahig Penal Colony, a reservation consisting of about 364 square miles, situated near Puerto Princesa, Palawan, in a rough mountainous country, cut by many rivers, with much jungle, surrounded on three sides by mountains and on the fourth by the sea, was established in November, 1904, and has a population of about 1,000 prisoners. The aim and purpose in the establishment of this penal colony were that by environment and association, by fixed habits of conduct and industry, by intellectual and moral in-

struction, by industrial and practical teachings, to sooner fit the prisoner for return to society a cured man mentally and physically and so trained that in the ordinary course of events he will be a law-abiding, self-respecting, and self-supporting member thereof. It was deemed that this could be best and soonest accomplished by a system of decreased restraints and increased independence, and utilizing the greatest part of the labor of said prisoners for agricultural purposes.

No guards, jails, or prisons or any similar force is employed or permitted. Peace and order are maintained as in ordinary communities, and is, in the main, conducted by the prisoners themselves. Prisoners, for special industry and good conduct, are permitted to have their families live with them, and upon expiration of their sentences may be allowed to continue to reside in the colony.

The colonists are divided for work purposes among divisions, each under the immediate charge of an officer. The United States has yet a valuable lesson to learn from this manner of handling prisoners in the Orient.

SLAUGHTER HOUSE.

Nearly two miles west of the penitentiary, in the Tondo district, about sixteen feet from the edge of Manila Bay, stands the slaughter house. It is a large building with a stone wall about eight feet high around it, and it has a tin roof which rests on supporters, that hold it about twenty inches above the walls of the house, thereby furnishing ventilation.

Owing to the intense heat, the butchering is all done at night, beginning about nine o'clock and closing about five in the morning.

Worn-out caribous are the first to be led in and tied to the iron stakes which are firmly imbedded in the stone floor, at regular intervals, along the slaughter room. A desperate looking Filipino then walks along; presses each animal's head down with one hand, and with the other which contains a sharpened steel dagger, sticks each of them in the *Medulla Oblongata*,—thus instantaneously severing the spinal cord and producing unconsciousness. The author of this little book, on the night of January 29, 1899, stood and watched this trained butcher kill twenty-seven caribous at the first stroke

before he had to stick any the second time because he had failed to hit the exact spot. The animal drops without a struggle. A strong Filipino follows him, and turning the animal's head over so that it rests on its long horns, cuts open the throat and forms the skin along the neck into a pocket. As soon as a little Filipino with his bamboo pails and a cocoanut dipper is by his side, he thrusts a long knife into the animal's heart, and as the blood gushes forth into this throat pocket made of its own skin, the little native fills his pails with blood and then runs and empties them into a large vat standing nearby, around which the natives and Chinese assemble to purchase it. Many of them stand at the vat and drink this hot life-blood as they buy it.

Small Chinese ponies, effected by age and rough treatment, are also butchered. Their meat is sold to the poorer class of Chinese. The hogs are butchered the last thing in the early morning. A limited number of these are killed, as pork is not eaten to a large extent in that warm climate.

STREET CAR LINES.

A crude system of street cars used to ramify every part of both Old and New Manila. The seats extended crosswise in the cars which held about forty people. They were drawn by small Chinese ponies, and whenever they came to such up-grades as are found at the ends of the bridges and over the canal in front of the old post office, the ponies were unable to draw their heavy loads, so the passengers were compelled to climb off and push till the top of the grade was reached. Car fare was cheap.

Things are different now. The United States has widened the streets, improved the bridge grades, and put in a modern electric street railway which not only permeates every part of Manila but extends its branches to the outlying villages, one trolley line going to the village of Paranaque five miles to the south-east.

ELECTRIC LIGHT PLANT

Manila, when taken over by the Americans, had a good electric light plant. However, the voltage soon proved insufficient, especially in view of the establishment of an

electric street railway. Accordingly, a powerful new plant was erected, and today Manila is one of the best lighted cities in the world.

WEATHER BUREAU.

The old Manila observatory was erected by the Jesuit Fathers as their own private institution in 1865. A system of weather stations in outlying parts was also established. Later these all passed into the Spanish authorities' hands. During the late war this service was abandoned, with the exception of the observatory in Manila. In 1899, the United States re-established it. The service is now conducted by seventy-five Filipinos, five Europeans and three Americans. It is proving of great assistance to shipping in the Orient, by forecasting typhoons etc.

MANILA BAY.

The city of Manila is so fortunately located as a port of entry on the eastern shore of Manila bay, and the relations of the city and the bay are so interwoven, that a study of one without the other would be quite incomplete.

The bay is 35 miles wide from east to west and 25 miles from north to south. The entrance to the bay from the Pacific ocean is divided into two nearly equal channels by Corregidor island which is situated approximately in the center of it. This island of course breaks all of the tidal waves as they enter the bay and makes it a model place of anchorage for vessels of every draft. In fact all of the merchant vessels and all of the navies of the world could anchor in the bay at one time in perfect safety with plenty of space for all.

It is from 40 to 85 feet deep, except in the extreme northern and southern parts where it is only about seven feet. These shallow extremes are used by the natives for the establishment of fish traps from which they take tens of thousands of fish daily, which they dispose of in the public market places of Manila.

DOCKS.

The old docks at Manila were erected on the northern bank of the Pasig river, near the bay. Vessels drawing 16 feet or more of water were, therefore, compelled to lie two miles off shore, and lighter cargo. This

was tedious and expensive. Spain, realizing that something would have to be done to improve shipping conditions, had her engineers prepare a diagram for a system of new docks to be extended well into Manila bay, on the southern bank of the Pasig river, and westward of the Walled City. Work on these docks was begun, but the Insurrection of 1899 stopped it for two years.

American engineers modified somewhat the plans of the Spanish engineers by providing for a much larger dockage than Spain contemplated. The cost was estimated at \$2,500,000. In October, 1900, \$1,000,000. was appropriated to renew the work which was formally begun January 13, 1902.

It was soon found that a new breakwater nearly 300 feet in length would have to be constructed to protect the lighter-craft vessels, and that dredging 30 feet deep would have to be done along the docks to accommodate vessels of heavy craft. This work cost an additional sum of \$5,784,838.

Manila has now become the leading port of the Orient. Its quick, cheap facilities for handling cargoes has proven a strong invitation to the shipping world, to say nothing

of the convenience to the traveling public resulting from this improved dockage.

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES.

The old University of Manila, advertised by Spain as having graduated from full college courses 180,000 Tagalos prior to 1896, was largely a dream. It has now given way to a modern university, comprising seven distinct colleges, which will be found discussed in detail under the head of "Education" in the next chapter.

HOW GOVERNED.

The government of Manila was taken over from the Spanish Civil Governor under an order of Gen. MacArthur, dated two days after the occupation of Manila. The present municipal corporation was created July 31, 1901, by Act No. 183 of the Commission. The Manila Charter, following somewhat the plan provided by Congress for the District of Columbia, vests the government in a municipal board of six members, three appointed by the Governor General by and with the consent of the Philippine Commission, one (the city engineer) ex-officio member, and two elective members.

Appropriations to cover the expenses of the city are made by the municipal board, subject to the approval of the Governor General. Thirty per cent of these expenses are paid by the insular government in consideration of various services, with the limitation that the contribution of the central government shall in no year exceed \$625,000.

Under American government there have been added 41 miles of streets and 28 bridges. In connection with the port works the water front has been enlarged, improved, and rendered susceptible of much further improvement. The reclaimed area embraces about 308.13 acres. Bituminous macadam and wood block paving have been placed on the principal streets, though the amount of available funds has prevented any considerable extension of the paved area, which is about 35,000 square yards. The area of streets sprinkled daily is 1,142,400 square yards, while upward of 2,000,000 square yards of street surface are cleaned daily.

The area of city parks and public grounds cared for is twice as great as in 1905, being about 300 acres, and the work of improving sites aggregating some 600 additional acres has been begun.

Eight public markets bring in a revenue of about \$150,000 annually, and provide stall space where retailers of food products conduct business, the same as they do in ancient Rome and other Old-World cities.

In December, 1901, the city secured the services of Hugh Bonner, ex-chief of the New York fire department, under whose supervision as chief the Manila fire department was placed on an up-to-date basis. Motor fire apparatus was introduced several years ago, and it is expected that motors will entirely supersede horse-drawn equipment within a short time. While there have been several extensive conflagrations, these have been limited largely to the so-called "nipa districts," where the closely adjacent houses, built of light materials, are thatched with nipa leaves. The per capita fire loss in 1911 was \$1.385.

The police force consists of 682 men, compared with 941 in 1902, and of the 13,792 cases presented to the municipal court in 1911 less than one in 10 involved moral turpitude.

CHAPTER V.
N A T I V E S
R A C E S.

There is but one small tribe of the original inhabitants as found by Magellan, called "Negritos," now left in the islands. The rest are mixed races of Oceanic Malays who crowded in around the edges of the islands and at the mouths of the rivers, killing all before them until they have nearly exterminated the original populace. There are also a few Japanese and a large number of Chinese. Over 40,000 of the latter may be found in the city of Manila alone.

In all, there are 63 different tribes of Filipinos, speaking 81 separate and distinct dialects, worshipping several different forms of a God, and possessed of no common national ideals to bind them together in a compact whole; thereby rendering their own self-government practically impossible until such time as the Islanders, under the leadership of the United States, shall be taught to speak but one language, honor one flag and in general worship but one God.

The original inhabitants, Negritos, were a small race of people about three and one-half feet in height, and possessed thick lips, curly hair, black skin, and various other peculiarities characteristic of the negro race. The present inhabitants are from four to five feet in height; have long, stiff, jet-black hair, black eyes, high cheek bones, and their skin is dark brown in color; and they look very much like the Japanese.

HEALTH.

The race as a whole may be said to be comparatively healthy, since the death rate (twenty-three per day in Manila and much less elsewhere) is the lightest of any tropical country in the world. Individually, they may be regarded as unhealthy, owing to the fact that nearly every child when it is born, is covered with climatic sores, and has in its blood inherited diseases of the most aggravating nature. Running sores are not infrequent on their crowns, but more especially around their ankle joints.

The United States is rapidly lowering the death rate by improving the general health conditions. For instance in 1906, the government, by an experiment, found the

Philippines were underlaid by an extensive artesian basin. Since then \$1,000,000 has been expended by the local government in digging 680 artesian wells, while rich natives have sunk as many more. Since the natives began to drink this artesian water, their health conditions have been entirely transformed.

The most distressing diseases of the Philippines are Leprosy, Cholera, Smallpox, Bubonic Plague and Beriberi. These will be discussed briefly in the order given.

LEPROSY.—Leprosy means spotted; although the disease shows itself in various forms. Some lepers notice their skin turning glassy and whitening, after which brown spots begin to appear; but in the more common form which prevails in the Philippines, the victim first notices that a certain deformity of himself is taking place, after which his joints enlarge and certain tissues waste away entirely. The disease works slowly; the patient may have it for several years without knowing it.

When the United States took charge of the Philippines, they found three leprosy hospitals (socalled) located as follows: one in Manila, one in Cebu and one in Neuva

Carceres. These were very poorly managed. The spread of the disease forced the government to take prompt action. Accordingly a Leper Colony was established on the beautiful island of Culoin near the southern part of the Archipelago.

To this island they sent 2,615 lepers, while it is estimated that there are an equal number still running at large and in hiding.

The greatest freedom of action is afforded to these unfortunates in the colony; they exercise certain governmental functions, indulge in track athletics and baseball games, are regaled with theatrical performances, and in fact are afforded all the liberties and enjoyments of the more fortunate, but with better housing and sanitary conditions. The spirit among the colonists improves, and it is believed that the day will come when lepers will voluntarily present themselves there for treatment. Meanwhile, the occurrences of new cases is becoming much less frequent.

CHOLERA.—One of the most dreaded diseases in the Philippines was Asiatic Cholera. In 1888 and again in 1889, it broke out in Manila,—the death rate from it for several weeks each time averaging 1000 per day. On March 20, 1902, Cholera broke out again in

Manila. The epidemic ran in broken intervals up till February 29, 1904. There were in the city 5,581 cases resulting in 4,386 deaths. Out in the country districts it was not checked until March 8. Among these rurals there were 160,671 cases resulting in 105,075 deaths. The awful consequences of the epidemic showed how illy-prepared the government physicians were to combat the disease.

It broke out again in Manila in 1905 and in 1910. The total deaths from these attacks amounted to 500. It also broke out in the provinces in 1905—1909—1910, and in one district as late as 1912. The deaths amounted to 68,687.

The director of health took hold of the matter vigorously, with the result that the plague seems now to have been mastered—largely, no doubt, by the improved drinking facilities.

SMALLPOX.—Another disease which the Filipinos considered practically incurable was Smallpox. The United States engaged vigorously in the process of vaccinating the natives, with the result that in seven provinces where there had been 600 deaths annually from smallpox, not a single death has

occured from this disease since 1906. Practically the whole population, outside of the wild Moros, has now been vaccinated. The death rate in the Archipelago, resulting from this malady, has therefore been reduced from 40,000 annually, to a few hundred.

BUBONIC PLAGUE.—The Philippines were, until a few years since, a dreadful place for Bubonic Plague. Thousands of deaths occured annually from it. The American physicians in the islands promptly conceded the correctness of the Indian Plague Commission, appointed by Great Britian to investigate the cause of this plague in India, to-wit: That Bubonic Plague is developed by plague-infected rats; that fleas bite these rats, infect their own dainty proboses and then bite man and transmit the disease to him.

Rat campaigns were therefore conducted along the wharves, in Manila, through the City at large and on throughout the Archipelago, with the happy result that Bubonic Plague has been entirely mastered.

BERIBERI.—For a long time the American medical authorities were baffled as to the cause of another plague in the Philippines,—Beriberi. Finally, it was decided that it re-

sulted from the Filipinos using polished rice too steadily as an article of diet. The American chemist in his laboratory determined that the phosphorus was all removed in the milling process. Orders were issued to the natives to eat only unpolished rice. Strict measures were taken to enforce this order; and another long-run disease has already practically disappeared.

It will readily be seen that whatever of treasure the United States has sacrificed in the Philippines, it has brought back a hundred fold in our improved knowledge of medical science, let alone the direct benefit to the natives themselves.

LANGUAGE.

As previously stated, the natives speak 81 dialects. The principal languages were Spanish, Tagalog, Visayan, Tinguin, Guinan and Vicol. When Aguinaldo declared himself dictator in 1899, he decreed that the entire language of the Archipelago should become Spanish. Mr. Roosevelt, while president, issued a proclamation declaring that the official language of the Philippines should become English. A law was subsequently

passed to this effect. It became operative January 1, 1913.

At least 3,000,000 native children have now had instruction in English. Most of this number speak it fluently. Their parents are rapidly mastering the English tongue by hearing the children speak it. All of them realize that it is the first great step toward their national independence.

EDUCATION.

When the United States assumed the sovereignty of the islands, they found that only about ten per cent of the total populace were able to read and write.

Hon. Thomas G. del Rosario, a member of the supervisory board of education during the closing years of Spanish dominion over the islands, very ably sets forth these facts:

"The establishment of schools of primary instruction in the municipalities of the Philippine Islands and of a normal school in Manila for the education of schoolmasters for such schools was not authorized until December 20, 1863. Before that date public schools were hardly known in the Philippines and instruction was confined solely to the children of parents able to pay for it.

This should not be surprising, since before the

nineteenth century education in Spain and other parts of Europe was limited to the children of wealthy parents: and the Philippines, as a Spanish colony, could not have more advantages in this respect than the mother country, nor could it be expected that Spain would evince more interest in educating her colonies than her own sons."

School reports published a few years before American occupation show a total of 2,143 schools established, about equally divided between boys and girls. An elaborate course of study was authorized, with detailed sets of rules governing their introduction. Rosario says that on the face of it these provisions would—

"lead one at first sight to believe that popular education in the Philippines had attained the state which it usually reaches in a progressive and civilized country. However, this was superficial only; at the bottom everything was contradictory to these laws and provisions, which were nothing but a veneer, a veil which covered the greatest of governmental fictions. The purpose was to show other colonizing nations that in this country the Government was paternal and that education was fully developed, while at the same time measures of all kinds were adopted to keep the people submerged in ignorance. Consequently the efforts made were of no avail, notwithstanding the desire to attain that purpose."

Note the change since the United States undertook this work. The entire public

school system of the Philippines has been placed under a competent, aggressive bureau of Education. The Archipelago has been divided into 38 school divisions. Each division is under a superintendent. The work is divided into primary schools, intermediate schools, high schools, trade schools, normals and a great university. The following table of statistics shows conclusively what has been accomplished:

NO. OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS, 1903-12.

School Year	Total Schools	American Teachers	Filipino Teachers	Total Teachers
1902-3*	2,000	928	3,000	3,928
1903-4	2,285	836	3,854	4,690
1904-5	2,864	855	4,036	4,891
1905-6	3,263	831	4,719	5,550
1906-7	3,687	746	6,141	6,887
1907-8	3,932	722	6,804	7,526
1908-9	4,424	825	7,949	8,774
1909-10	4,531	732	8,275	9,007
1910-11	4,404	683	8,403	9,086
1911-12	†3,685	664	7,699	8,363

*Estimates.

†More than 700 schools closed due to lack of funds.

Thirteen trade schools are maintained in various provinces; manual-training class-

es are conducted in all provincial schools, in 150 intermediate schools, and in 400 central primary schools. These schools manufactured during the school year 1911-12 products to the value of \$71,508.22. There are over 3,000 school gardens and nearly 23,000 home gardens supervised by school authorities. Eighty-three school nurseries have been established, and during the year 1911-12 school children planted 363,183 trees, of which number 201,868 were living at the close of the year. Five school farms are operated.

At the Philippine Exposition held in February, 1913, the bureau of education placed on display 23,305 articles, the product of the industrial classes of the public schools, valued at \$28,591.62, of which \$20,056.76 worth were sold, or 70 per cent of the exhibit. Of the amount sold, pupils received \$17,802.79 as their share, while the balance was returned to the schools to pay for the material used.

Manila is rapidly becoming the educational center of the Orient. The University of the Philippines, established in that city by the Philippine Legislature acting under advice from the United States, was founded

“to provide advanced instruction in literature, philosophy, science, and arts, and to give professional and technical training.” Its organization is as follows:

University: College of liberal arts (with a course in pharmacy), college of medicine and surgery, college of agriculture (with a school of forestry), college of engineering, school of fine arts, college of veterinary science, college of law.

The annual catalog which the Manila University issues is a model and it reflects great credit on the Bureau of Printing, located in Manila, which does the work.

RELIGION.

Catholicism is the prevailing religion among the natives, except in the Sulu archipelago where Mohammedanism holds sway.

An Arch-Bishop is appointed by the Pope. He resides in the Walled City, and has charge of the spiritual affairs of the Philippine, Ladrone, Caroline and Loo Choo Islands. The Philippines are divided into five dioceses ruled over by five bishops appointed by the arch-bishop. These dioceses in turn are separated into various provinces

in each of which resides a Spanish priest who has charge of the spiritual affairs of his district.

From the summer of 1899, the Filipinos have urgently requested the United States to place their spiritual affairs entirely in their own hands.

Protestant missionaries have since gone into the Philippines. To avoid trouble, the military authorities divided the islands into missionary districts, assigning one district to each denomination. Considerable spiritual progress has been made.

CIVIL SERVICE.

Act No. 5 of the Commission was passed September 19, 1901, providing the basis of a civil-service system, which has been extended to all the offices of the central or insular government, the provincial service, and lately to the treasurers of municipalities.

A distinguishing feature of the civil-service act is the provision that vacancies in the positions of chiefs and assistant chiefs of bureaus and offices and as superintendents must be filled by the promotion of persons in the service, if competent ones are available.

During the year 1912 a total of 5,948

Filipinos competed in the examinations, 5,147 taking them in English and 801 in Spanish; whereas, during the first two years examinations were held, over 99 per cent of the native competitors had to be examined in Spanish.

The progress in the Filipinization of the service is shown by the following table:

Year	Officers and employees.			Salaries paid.		
	Amer- icans	Filipi- nos.	Total	Ameri- cans,	Filipinos.	Total.
1903 ..	2,777	2,697	5,474	P7,236,700	P2,189,376	P9,426,076
1904 ..	3,228	3,377	6,605	8,663,720	2,932,834	11,596,554
1905 ..	3,307	4,023	7,330	8,942,424	3,309,738	12,252,162
1907*	2,616	3,902	6,518	7,869,242	3,234,494	11,103,736
1908 ..	2,479	4,080	6,559	7,749,236	3,686,855	11,436,091
1909 ..	2,659	4,397	7,056	8,576,962	4,018,988	12,595,950
1910 ..	2,633	4,639	7,272	8,755,486	4,296,896	12,052,382
1911 ..	2,633	4,981	7,614	8,954,834	4,668,825	13,623,659
1912 ..	2,680	6,033	8,713	9,247,124	5,468,175	14,715,299

* No data available for 1906.

(Amount given is in Pesos. To reduce to Dollars, divide by 2).

MONEY.

Magellan found the natives engaged solely in barter. Spain later sent Spanish coins of various denominations into the islands, and finally she resorted to Mexican currency.

The pressing need of the islands was more money, and money of a stable character.

To facilitate matters, Congress, in 1903, passed a special coinage act which established a gold-exchange in the Archipelago. A gold peso, worth 50 cents in the United States, was made the basis of value.

To finance the introduction of the new system, the act authorized the flotation of one-year temporary certificates of indebtedness; and an issue in April, 1903, of \$3,000,000 was sold at a premium of \$2.513 per \$100, and another issue of like amount, for which bids were opened August 25, brought a premium of \$2.24 per \$100. Pending the disbursment of the proceeds of these issues they were deposited at interest.

The obstacles in the way of successfully introducing the new coinage after its receipt at Manila at times seemed almost insurmountable, but the difficulties were overcome and the system has withstood successfully every test to which it has been subjected. It has brought incalculable benefit to the inhabitants of the islands in replacing the chaotic conditions formerly prevailing, with a stable and uniform currency.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANK.

Although the United States did not establish postal savings banks until 1911, yet, strangely enough, they permitted their wards, the Filipinos, to Establish them as far back as 1906. At first the depositors were mostly Americans and foreigners, but the Filipinos soon took advantage of the opportunity as is shown by the following report for 1912:

Number of offices	437
Number of depositors	35,802
Net deposits	\$1,194,493.21
Nationality of depositors:	
Americans	4,720
Europeans	886
Asiatics	590
Societies	51
Filipinos	29,555

The result of our aducation of the Filipinos is admirably reflected in the fact that 62 per cent of the native depositors in these postal savings banks are under 23 years of age, and that only 11 per cent of them are over 35.

HOMES.

The Filipinos build the frame-work of their homes out of bamboo which grows wild

everywhere, but more densely along the banks of streams. They cover these houses with Nipa palms which grow very extensively in nearly all the large swamps. The floors are made of narrow strips of bamboo which are tied to the bamboo joists beneath them. These strips are laid about half an inch apart, so that the mud from the natives' feet and the other rubbish which accumulates from cooking and other sources will work their own way through to the ground beneath.

Very little, if any, furniture is found in their homes. They all eat from the same earthen jar with their fingers, and squat down when desiring to sit or rest,—not having any chairs. They sleep on their backs on the floor, it being a rare thing to find a home containing even a bamboo bed. Their little stoves are made of baked clay.

HOMESTEADS.

By far the greater part of the area of the Philippine Islands is embraced in the public lands. The law provides for the disposition of these by sale, lease, and homesteading, with strict limitations as to the number of acres either an individual or a corporation may acquire.

The total acreage of the public lands is 60,000,000. These are measured out to the natives in hectares instead of acres. A hectare equals 2.47 acres. The largest amount of public land which a Filipino may either homestead or buy is 16 hectares (40 A.); and a corporation is limited to 1,024 hectares (2,500 A.).

Relatively only a very small part of them has been disposed of during the last 10 years. Aside from the adverse influence due to the lack of roads and the consequent inaccessibility of many of the most desirable sections, the small area anyone may acquire has undoubtedly prevented many sales. A general cadastral survey would be a great advance toward making these lands salable.

From the date the public-land act took effect, July 26, 1904, until June 30, 1912, the bureau of lands received applications as follows:

	Number	Hectares
Homestead applications	17,950	226,160.31
Sales	603	20,568.73
Lease	340	99,295.42
Free patents	15,885	52,050.56

DRESS.

The only clothing worn by the men, outside Manila and by many of those who reside in the metropolis, is a short pair of trousers fastened around the waist and extending to the knees.

Nearly all the children go naked until they are from four to seven years of age.

The women dress in short skirts over which is worn a tiny apron, and a small waist cut low in the neck, and oftentimes it is so short that it does not connect with the skirt, thus leaving a strip of the body around the waist entirely exposed to the sun.

The women have long black hair in which they find their chief delight. They wash it, bathe it in cocoanut oil, then dry it in the sun, and take good care of it.

WASHING CLOTHES.

The Filipinos take their dirty clothes, march down to the water's edge, find a rock partly submerged, dip the clothes into the water frequently and then pound them over the rock until they are clean. Sometimes they lay the clothes on a large stone, after dipping them in the water, and then pound them with a wash-club.

If the sun is shining they dry them. If it is raining they put them right on and wear them.

FOOD

Their main article of diet is rice. With this they eat fish, bananas, mangoes, coconuts, etc.

Although they raise caribous, chickens and a few hogs, they eat meat very sparingly.

CHEWING BETEL NUT.

The betel nut, extracted from the areca plant, cut into thin slices, wrapped in the leaves of the pepper plant, and covered with oyster shell lime or crushed rice mixed with caribou milk, is chewed by the natives instead of tobacco. These nuts are very bitter and they color the natives' mouths and teeth bright red. It is claimed that they assist digestion, and if applied externally will cure tonsillitis and other diseases of the throat.

SMOKING.

The enormous amount of tobacco produced in the islands, is very largely con-

sumed at home,—the natives of both sexes being inveterate smokers from childhood. As soon as a little one is able to sit alone, it is taught to smoke. The natives claim that smoking keeps away disease. Strangely enough, they do not chew tobacco, although some of the wild southern tribes cook and eat it.

GAMBLING.

The Filipinos are given to gambling. Their natural disposition being toward idleness, the inclination to gamble is easily acquired. In addition to their ordinary games upon which they bet heavily, they also have cockfights. Many of the roosters used in these fights cost two-hundred pesos apiece, and occasionally double that amount is paid for one which has been successful in several severe battles. This form of amusement is now rapidly giving way to baseball.

MUSICAL TALENT.

They are all natural born musicians; that is, born in possession of wonderful musical talent. They very readily become proficient on almost any instrument, but sur-

pass on those that are stringed, especially the violin. They also sing well. The men sing baritone; the ladies, alto. Their voices blend harmoniously and are pleasing to the ear.

MARRIAGES.

Under the old Filipino customs, they married young—the boys at from fourteen to seventeen, the girls at from twelve to fifteen. The ceremonies were simple, but solemn. One of the main stipulations in the contract was that whenever the girl's father became unable to pay the taxes imposed upon him by the Spanish government, he had a right to call on his son-in-law for help. If the son-in-law refused, his wife was taken from him and held at her father's home until the demands upon the son-in-law had been satisfied. If he failed to do this within a certain length of time, it was equivalent to a divorce.

In 1900, General Otis decreed that the civil laws governing marriage in the United States should, with but few alterations, become effective in the Philippines.

BIRTHS.

When a child is born to wealthy Filipinos, a weird dance is instituted, which lasts for three days and nights—at the end of which time the child is Christened.

DEATHS.

Nothing solemn accompanies death; mourning for the dead is unknown. The wealthier class oftentimes have a dance, employ a good singer, and have a merry time when a child dies. No hearse conveys their dead to the grave. If it be a grown person, four men (if a child, four boys)—two in front and two behind—with bamboo sticks across their shoulders, on which rests the rough wooden box containing its silent form, carry their burden “unwept, unhonored and unsung” to the cemetery.

Sometimes the corpse is followed by a few friends, but not infrequently they are carried unaccompanied to the grave-yard and given to the man who has it in charge. He takes the body and inserts it into a niche in the wall; gives those who brought it the number of the grave, and the ceremony is ended.

GRAVE-YARDS.

All the older grave-yards are made of stone. The four walls are of masonry and about eight feet in width and nearly as high. The graves are hollow cavities with flat bottoms and semi-circular sides and top, left in the wall at the time of its construction. There are three tiers of these cavities, or graves. The rent on the upper tier exceeds that of the second, and the second that of the lower. Thus the rich are privileged to bury their dead above the poor.

When a body is brought to the gate-keeper, he takes it and puts it into an empty grave and seals up the entrance of the tomb by means of a whitish stucco. If the rent is not kept up, he takes out the box containing the body, carries it to the front of the grave-yard, along the high-way, places one end of it upon a rock or block, and the other on the ground, so that it reclines at an angle of forty-five degrees. This enables all who pass by to look into the box. The name of the dead person, so exposed, is placed near the head of the partly decomposed corpse. After a few days, if the rent remains unpaid, the body is dumped out into the pile of bones

in the back end of the grave-yard where crows, buzzards and insects soon devour it. If the rent is kept paid up in full, the body is left in the grave three years, then taken out and the skeleton is dumped into the bone pile. Thousands of these skeletons can be seen at each cemetery.

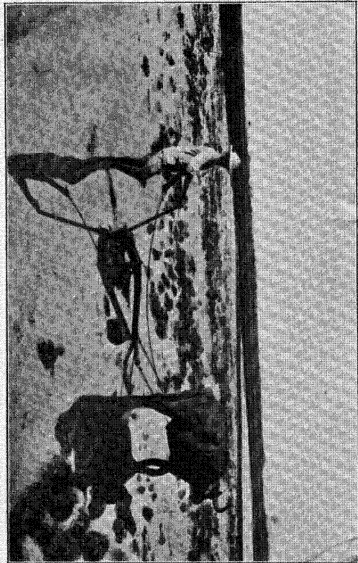
AGRICULTURE.

The Filipinos have a crude system of agriculture, for which Spain is directly responsible. Their fields are still plowed with wooden plows which have only one handle, and are harrowed with wooden harrows made of bamboo. These plows and harrows are drawn by caribous. When a crop is raised, the surplus is hauled to the water's edge by means of bamboo sleds. Here it is loaded into canoes and cargoes and floated to market; or else it is hauled to town on two-wheeled wooden carts drawn by caribous.

Much garden truck is raised in the province of Manila, to supply the city's needs. This gardening is done mostly by Chinamen.

RAILROADS

On American occupation of the Philippine Islands there existed one railroad, that



Plowing a Field of Rice

from Manila to Dagupan, approximately 120 miles in length. It was operated under a grant made in 1887 to a British company. The Spanish Government guaranteed to the concessionaire annual net earnings equal to 8 per cent of the capital to be employed, this capital being fixed at \$5,553,700 Mexican. Net earnings were ascertained arbitrarily by taking one-half of the gross earnings. The concession was to run for 99 years. Upon the expiration of this term the Spanish Government was to come into possession of the line with its rolling stock and all its dependencies as owner.

Since American occupation of the islands, additional railroads extending into the richest provinces, have been built as follows:

Without guaranty:	Kilometers.
By the Manila Railroad Co.,	281.762
With guaranty:	
By the Manila Railroad Co.,.....	242.137
By the Philippine Railway Co.,.....	251.10
Total	493.237

and there is under contract for construction:

Without guaranty: By the Manila Railroad Co.	89.604
With guaranty: By Manila Railroad Co.,	497.799

The total amount of money advanced by the government of the Philippine Islands to the railroad companies under this guaranty of interest to December 31, 1912, for which the government has not been reimbursed by the companies, was \$1,357,836.75. This amount is a loan of the government to the rialroads and is secured by a second mortgage on the property of the railroad companies.

SLAVERY

From the earliest known history of the race, the Filipinos had a peculiar system of slavery which existed mostly in the southern islands.

As to its genesis, we have no record. It is supposed to have originated in three ways :

(1) Those who were captured during conquest were perhaps held as slaves.

(2) Those who owed debts were seized for the cancellation of their liabilities.

(3) Those who committed minor crimes such as theft, were held as convicts.

The word slavery as applied to their treatment of slaves does not bear the same significance as it does when applied to those

who were held in bondage for generations in this country.

In the Philippines most of the slaves were given a third or half of their time for their own improvement; and by the payment of forty pesos (twenty American dollars) they could purchase their freedom forever.

If a slave woman had a baby whose father was her master, both she and the child were immediately set at liberty, because their unwritten law embodied the principle that no man should hold in bondage, should traffic or should sell his own children or their mothers.

Children born of slave parents were held slaves from birth. Those born of one slave and one free parent, were held to be slaves only one half of the time. The offspring of these children were held to be one-fourth slaves. The United States has purchased the freedom of all those who could be approached with negotiations. The rest will be freed as rapidly as they can be found. The system has already practically died out, except among the Mohammedan Sulus where it has been impossible to reach them with negotiations, owing to their savage nature.

OCCUPATIONS.

The streams of the Philippine Islands abound in fish. There is an abundance of fruit of various kinds constantly ripening at all seasons of the year. Thus, Nature has blessed the Filipinos very nearly with a livelihood without necessitating a steady occupation.

This leaves those who have no ambition for work, in idleness, with nothing to engage their attention. This condition of affairs, wherever found, only tends to cultivate domestic disturbances. Naturally, the Filipinos are inveterate thieves and revel in strife and blood-shed.

Those of the more industrious natives who are inclined to work are engaged in agriculture, manufacturing, fishing and commerce. The introduction of the trades into the schools of the islands will evidently entirely reform the next generation of them.

Magellan found them engaged in war, and every year of their known history since that time, portrays them in internicine struggles.

Their love of war, their disposition to overcome, and their utter fearlessness aris-

ing from ignorance of what really constitutes danger, make them aggressive in nature and hard to conquer.

Spain subdued them only within the range of her cannon stationed at the most important centers.

The United States, with strong military organizations garrisoning the most important cities; with 3,685 institutions for public instruction spread out over the islands, employing 664 American teachers and 7,699 Filipino teachers; holding out to them the "olive branch of peace" and offering them local self-government as fast as they are capable of utilizing it,—has done more to bring about a universal and stable peace among the islanders and to advance their material prosperity, in a comparatively few years, than Spain did in nearly four centuries. The language of Aguinaldo, himself, after his capture, is most appropriate: "I never dreamed that the Americans were so kind and generous, or that they would do so much for my beloved country."

Every Filipino, asking for Philippine independence, should pause to ask himself: "How could we do as much for ourselves in a hundred years as the United States has

done for us in fifteen years, even if we had been set free?"

May the onward march of civilization carry enlightenment to the Filipinos and bring a justly-deserved credit to the American people who have sacrificed both blood and treasure for the benefit of this down-trodden race!

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

The proper names in this book are principally Spanish; therefore, the rules governing the pronunciation of Spanish words, apply here:

VOWELS.

A is sounded ah as in "arm."

E has the sound of long a as in "ate". When it is followed by r or n, it retains its broad sound as in the English word "there". Final e has the sound of short i; thus "de" is pronounced "di".

I has the sound of long e as in "me".

O is long as in "home". When it is followed by r or n, it has a broad sound as in "or".

U has the sound of long oo as in "school."

Y when used as a vowel is merely a substitute for i.

CONSONANTS.

The consonants are pronounced the same as they are in English with but few exceptions. These exceptions are as follows:

C when followed by *e* or *i* has the sound of *th* as in "Cebu" pronounced "Thaboo".

G has a hard sound as in "gold." When followed by *e* or *i* it has the sound of *j* as in "Magellan".

Gui has the sound of *gee* (hard *g*) as in "Guiguinto" pronounced "Gee-geen-tow".

J has the sound of *h* as in in "Jolo" pronounced "Holo".

N very often has the sound of *y* as in "canon" pronounced "canyun".

Qu has the sound of *k* as in "queso" pronounced "kayso" (meaning cheese.)

Qui is pronounced *kee* as in "Quiapo" (Kee ah'po).

B and *V* have become interchangeable. "Neuva" (meaning nine) is spelled with a *b*

and pronounced the same. So also is "vino" (bino) and many other words.

ACCENT.

Words ending in a vowel are usually accented on the penultimate. Words ending in a consonant are accented on the ultimate.

For ease in pronunciation and fluency in conversation, the rules for accenting syllables are habitually violated.

SELF-PRONOUNCING INDEX

A

Abando—Ah bahn'doh
Acunia—Ah koon'yah
Agusan—Ah goo'sahn (violates rule of accent)
Aguinaldo—Ah gee nahl'doh
Alexandro—Ahl ax ahn'dro
Albay—Ahl'bi
Anda, Simon de—Seemone di Ahn'dah
Apo—Ah'po
Archipelago—Ahr ki pal'ah go
Arandia—Ah rahn de ah
Arayat—Ahr'ah yaht'
Arrechedera—Ahr ak a da'rah
Asin—Ah seen'
Agusti—Ah goo'ste

B

Bachi—Bah'ke
Bactan—Bahk tahn'
Banajao—Bahn ah ha'oh
Bato—Bah to
Batangas—Bah tohn'gahs
Beso—Ba sah'oh
Bohol—Bow hole'
Botocan—Bow tow kahn'
Brava, Pedro—Pay dro Brah'vah
Buhi—Boo'e
Bulucan—Boo loo Kahn'

Bulusan—Boo loo sahn'
Bustamante—Boos tah mahn'ti
Butuan—Boo too ahn'

C

Caceres—Kah tha raze'
Cagayan—Kah gah yahn'
Camarines—Kah mah reens'
Canda ba—Kahn dah' bah
Canlaon—Kahn lah own'
Carballo—Kahr bahl'oh
Cavite—Kah veet'i
Cayetano—Kah ya tah'no
Cebu—Tha'boo
Corcura—Kor koo rah
Corregidor—Kor rej'e dor
Cruzat—Kroo zaht'
Cuba—Koo'bah (English Ku'ba)

D

Dasmarinas—Dahs mah ree n'yahs
Data—Dah tah
Dulumbayan—Doo loom bah yahn

E

El Cano—Ail kah'no

F

Fajardo—Fah har'do
Filipinos—Feel ee pee'noze
Folilo—Fo lee yoh
Formosa—For mow'sah

G

Guinga—Geen'gaw
Guzman—Gooz mahn'

H

Hagonay—Hah go'ni
Hal con—Hahl kone

I

Iligan—Eel ee gahn
Ilocos—Eel oh kose
Iloila—Eel oh eel'oh
Isarog—Ee sah rog'

J

Jara—Hah'rah
Jolo—Ho'lo
Juan—Hoo ahn

L

Ladrones—Lahd ronz'
Laguna—Lah Goo'nah
Laverzares—Lah vair zah raze
Legaspi—Lay gahs'pee
Leyte—Lay'ti
Los Banos—Bahn yose
Luzon—Loo zawn

M

Mactan—Mahk tahn
Madia-as—Mah dee ah'yahs
Magellan—Mah jail'ahn
Malolos—Mah low'los
Mangabol—Mahn gah bowl
Mantalingayan—Mahn tah leen gah yahn'
Manila—Mah neel'ah
Marilao—Mah'ree lah'oh (ordinarily pronounced
"Mah ree'low.)
Mariveles—Mah reev'a laze
Marinduque—Mah reen doo'kee

Masbate—Mahs bah'ta
Mateo—Mah tay'oh
Matilda—Mah teel'dah
Mayon—Mah yawn'
Mindora—Meen do'ro
Mindanoa—Meen dah nah'oh (Last two syllable
commonly pronounced "now".)

N

Namague—Nah mah'gee
Nangtud—Nahng tood'
Negros—Nay gros
Nueva—New a'vah

P

Pagson—Pahg sawn'
Palawan—Pahl'ah wahn (Violates rule of accent)
Palanan—Pahl ahn yahn'
Pampanga—Pahm pahn'gah
Panay—Pah ni
Pasig—Pah'seeg
Pesos—Pay'sos
Philippine—Feel ee peen'i (This pronunciation
has been entirely abolished by custom
and they are now called Fil'ipin Islands)
Playa Honda—Pah yah Hone'dah
Polivieja—Pale ee vay'hah
Polis—Po'lees

Q

Quianga—Kee ahn'gah
Quimanguil—Kee mahn'geel

R

Ronquillo—Rone Keel'yah
Rizal, Jose—Hoza Rethal

S

Sabiniano—Sah bee nee ah'no
Samar—Sah mahr'
San Antonio—Sahn Ahn two'nee oh
San Lorenzo—Sahn Low rain'zoh
San Miguel—Sahn Mee geel'
San Fernando—Sahn Fair nahn'doh
Santiago—Sahn tee ah'go
San Rafael—Sahn Raf'fah ail
Segovia—Say go'vee ah
Silva—Seel'vah
Sibuyan—See boo yahn
Sulu—Soo'loo

T

Taal—Tah ahl'
Tamon, Valdez—Vahl daze' Tah mohn
Torbio—Tor bee'oh
Tavora—Tah voo'rah
Tayabas—Tah yah bahs
Tivi—Tee'vee

V

Vargas—Vahr'gahs
Villalobos—Veel ah low'bose
Zambales—Zahm bah laze'.

APPENDIX "A"

COMPLETE LIST, SPANISH GOVERNORS,
OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

1521	Hernando Magellanes
1565	Miguel Lopez de Legaspi
1574	Guido de Lavezares
1575	Francisco de Sande
1580	Gonzalo Ronquillo
1583	Diego Ronquillo
1584	Santiago de Vera
1590	Gomez Perez Dasmarinas
1593	Pedro de Rojas (pro tem.)
1593	Louis Perez Dasmarinas
1595	Antonio de Morga
1596	Francisco Tello de Guzman
1602	Pedro Bravo de Acuna
1606	Christobal Tellez de Lamezan
1608	Rodrigo Vivero (pro tem.)
1609	Juan de Silva
1616	Andres Alcazar
1617	Geronimo de Silva (interregnum)
1618	Alfonso Fajardo de Tua
1624	Geronimo de Silva
1625	Fernando de Silva (pro tem.)
1626	Juan Nindo de Tabora
1632	Lorenzo de Olaaso
1633	Juan Creez de Salamanca (pro tem.)
1635	Sebastian Hurtado de Corcuera
1644	Diego Fajardo
1653	Sabiniano Manrique de Lara
1633	Diego Salcedo

- 1668 Juan Manuel de la Pena Bonifaz (pro tem.)
1669 Manuel de Leon
1677 Francisco Coloma and Francisco Sotomayor
y Mancilla
1678 Juan de Vargas Hurtado
1684 Gabriel Curuzelægui
1689 Alfonso Fuertes
1690 Fausto Cruzat y Gongora
1701 Domingo Zabalburu
1709 Martin Urzua
1715 Jose Torralba
1717 Fernando de Bustamante
1719 Francisco de la Cuesta, Archbishop of Ma-
nila (interim)
1728 Marques de Torre-Campo
1739 Fernando Vales y Tamon
1739 Gasparde de la Torre
1745 Juan Arechederra, Bishop-elect of Nueva
Segovia
1750 Jose Francisco de Obando
1754 Pedro Manuel de Arndia
1759 Miguel Ezpeleta, Bishop of Cebu
1761 Manuel Rojo, Archbishop of Manila
1762 Simon de Anda y Salazar
1764 Francisco Javier de la Torre
1765 Jose de Raon
1770 Simon de Adda y Salazar
1776 Pedro de Sario
1778 Jose de Basco y Vargas
1787 Pedro de Sario
1788 Felix Berenguer y Marquina
1793 Rafael Maria de Aguilar
1806 Mariano Fernandez de Folgueras

-
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- 1810 Manuel Gonzalez de Aguilar
1813 Jose Gardoqui de Garaveitia
1816 Mariano Fernandez de Folgueras
1822 Juan Antonio Matinez
1824 Mariano Ricafort
1830 Pascual Enrile y Alcedo
1835 Gabriel de Torres
1835 Joaquin de Cramer
1835 Pedro Antonio de Salazar
1837 Andres G. Camba
1838 Luis Lardizabal
1841 Marcelino de Oraa
1843 Francisco de Paulo de Alcala
1844 Narciso Calveria
1849 Antonio M. Blanco
1850 Antonio de Urbiztondo
1853 Ramon Montero
1854 Miguel Pavo y Lay
1854 Ramon Montero
1854 Manuel Crespo
1856 Ramon Montero
1857 Fernando de Norzagaray
1860 Ramon Solano y Llanderal
1860 Juan de Herrera Davila
1861 Jose Lemery
1862 Salvador Valdes
1862 Rafael Echague
1865 Jouquin del Solar
1865 Juan de Lara e Irigoyen
1865 Juan Laureano de Sanz
1866 Antonio Ossorio
1866 Joaquin del Solar
1866 Jose de la Gandara

